

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 16, 1873.

The Week.

MR. FISH'S despatch on the colonial policy of Spain has been made public, and furnishes the most prominent political topic of the week. It is decidedly the most menacing document which has issued from the State Department during General Grant's administration. It is dated October 29, 1872, and begins by reproaching the Spanish Government for not executing the emancipation law in Cuba and Porto Rico; declares that the freedmen in this country naturally and properly sympathize with their brethren held in bondage in the Spanish islands; maintains that, although a majority of the Spanish people are opposed to the independence of Cuba, the Cuban slaveholders have been allowed to prevent the execution of the emancipation laws, and argues that this, if permitted to continue, will prove the inability of Spain to control the island; shows that the insurrection in Cuba has lasted four years, and cost 100,000 lives, and that the strain which this and the nearness of the island impose on our vigilance in the enforcement of the neutrality laws, is something which cannot be borne indefinitely; hints that if the struggle is not brought to a close speedily, this Government may be forced to "consider the question whether duty to itself and to the commercial interests of its citizens may not demand some change in the line of action which has been thus far pursued"; expresses the opinion that the war is protracted in some degree through the influence of contractors and other persons who make money out of hostilities; reproaches the Spanish Government with the failure to fulfill its promises of municipal reform in the island, and with the maintenance of the odious distinctions of the old colonial system between the Creoles and the Spaniards; complains of the non-payment of compensation to American citizens whose property on the island has been damaged, or wrongfully confiscated, during the rebellion. The despatch, which is very severe—in parts almost bitter—in its language, concludes by imposing on Mr. Sickles the apparently difficult if not impossible task of making its contents known to the Spanish Government "without giving offence," and threatening that if its remonstrances are not heeded Spain may look for a "marked change in the feeling and in the temper of the people and of the Government of the United States." It appears, however, that Spain has taken the matter in perfectly good part.

Mr. Oakes Ames has been cross-examined before the committee on the subject of his dealings with the Crédit Mobilier stock, and from his answers we get a clearer account of what happened than from his direct examination; and this is what it seems to be: He came to the conclusion that it would be advisable in the interest of the road to have the stock of the Crédit Mobilier distributed as widely as possible among members of Congress, and for this purpose he obtained an allotment of 375 shares from the company, which he paid for with his own money, but they were transferred to him and one other person, his own clerk, "in trust," though why in trust he could not say, and these shares he "assigned" to various members of Congress. By "assigned" he meant planned in his own mind to give them, not with the idea of corrupting them, but with the view of "having enough people interested in the affairs of the road to look into them." Unfortunately, Mr. Ames says he was not in the habit of keeping memoranda or books until lately, and he frequently complains of the badness of his memory. To those to whom he gave the stock he paid all the dividends accruing before November, 1868. For instance, he "presumes" he paid them a dividend of 80 per cent. in Union Pacific bonds

in January, 1868, and the same day a dividend of 100 per cent. stock; and "his impression is" that he paid them in July 75 per cent. Union Pacific stock, and, on the same day, 75 per cent. of Union Pacific bonds; that in September he paid them 100 per cent. in Union Pacific stock, and, the same day, 75 per cent. of bonds—in all, 425 per cent. in a single year, which made the original investment a very nice little thing. But it seems to have been even better than this, for the total amount of the dividends paid to the holders of the Crédit Mobilier stock between April, 1866, and December, 1868, was 715 per cent. in Union Pacific stock, 730 in first mortgage bonds, and 60 per cent. in cash—or 1,505 per cent. in all.

The question of most interest to the public is, what members of Congress received their dividends, and what members, having received them, gave them back. Mr. Ames thinks that all who paid for their stock received these dividends up to December, 1868, and these were Messrs. Patterson, Bingham, Wilson, Colfax, and Scofield—a part only; Kelley and Garfield never paid for the stock, and therefore got no dividends. It ought to be added that these dividends to the Crédit Mobilier Company were in part compensation for building the road. The actual cost of construction was \$36,221,000, while the sum paid was about \$69,000,000, and under the influence of the operation the Crédit Mobilier stock rose from below par to 225. But it is maintained by Mr. Ames and his friends, and, we believe, is not contradicted, that it was only by such an arrangement as this—that is, the receipt of the profits of construction by the shareholders—that the enterprise could ever have been carried out under the charter. The charter required that the stock of \$100,000,000 should not be sold below par, so that an investment of \$51,000,000 would be required to control the road. To get over this, the Crédit Mobilier was founded and composed of the chief holders of the Union Pacific stock, who then made highly advantageous contracts with themselves, and divided the Union Pacific stock and bonds in payment on these contracts.

Mr. Boutwell and Mr. Richardson have both been before the Finance Committee of the Senate, trying to persuade that body that they have the right under the law to re-issue the \$44,000,000 of greenbacks, but the Committee was not convinced. On the contrary, it has made a report reviewing the acts of Congress in relation to the currency, and, while acquitting the Secretary of the Treasury and his assistant of improper motives, it condemns their late action in the most emphatic manner as unwarranted by law, "resting upon a doubtful construction of words," and a "bad precedent." With this conclusion we believe there will be an almost unanimous agreement. We now need more than anything else greater certainty in finance; the great objection to all paper money, no matter how well managed, is the uncertainty about its value, and this uncertainty is of course considerably increased if the power of expanding and contracting its volume is given to a single man. We have no doubt whatever that Mr. Boutwell is the first person, not of royal blood, who has within two centuries publicly claimed this power within the limits of Christendom. "Such a power," in the forcible language of the report, "if given would be by clear and unambiguous language, and should not be inferred by subtle reasoning or depend upon the pressure of interested parties, or changing views of public policy."

It appears from the investigation now going on that a good many of the prominent politicians of Kansas are doing some very pretty perjury, or else that a good many other prominent politicians and legislators of Kansas have been purchased by Mr. Caldwell, one of the Senators, at prices—for low-toned ones—ranging between eight hundred and twenty-five hundred or five thousand dollars. High-toned ones, who came out like men and would not take a bribe, and

intimated as much to Caldwell's agent, furthermore said that they had been at some expense in order to secure their seats, and that if Caldwell would give them the money to defray such charges, why they would vote for him—or words to that effect—we suppose may have cost about as much, one with another, as the low-toned ones. If a man goes to the legislature “on the make,” he expects to have several opportunities in the course of the winter, and to use them, and can afford to be bought a little cheaper at each single time than the man who decides on selling out but once; but, on the other hand, he is apt to think each time that he can't afford it. It is a pleasing spectacle as it stands, and one can only fall back on the hope that, after all, perhaps a majority of the members, even of a Kansas Legislature, are unbrilliant; and that of the others there are some who have been rather indifferent about getting up their ethics. Besides, “the boys must have something,” as one of our New York Commissioners of the Board of Charities and Correction used to say.

In his message to the Legislature, Governor Dix recommends that the practice of voting sums for various objects “greatly in excess of the current revenues” be given up, and the rule be adopted that no appropriation be made without simultaneous provision of the means of payment. For this purpose he advises the passage of a general law requiring the Controller, “whenever in any year an appropriation by the Legislature shall exceed the amount of the revenue applicable to it, to provide for such deficiency by adding it to the tax levy.” The Governor declares himself in favor of paying debts in hard money; suggests that the securities in which savings-banks may invest be prescribed by law, and that any investment in violation of such a law be made a misdemeanor; announces it as his intention to keep the militia organization effective; advises the retention of the canals in the hands of the State, and the employment of steam on them; suggests the funding the State debt at 5 per cent.; advises the Constitutional Commission, now in session, to prohibit special legislation as far as possible, and to make suitable provision for the payment of legislators; recommends that aliens be enabled to hold real estate; recommends the repeal of the usury laws, if not entirely, at least so far as to cover all ordinary commercial loans in which real estate is not mortgaged. He calls the attention of the Legislature to the reports of the Tax Commission and to the inequity and absurdity of the tax on mortgages of real estate. This tax, the disabilities imposed on aliens, and the usury laws, are among the chief causes, the Governor thinks, of the recent rapid growth of wealth and population in Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, as compared with that of New York.

With regard to the city, the Governor wishes the Mayor to have full power of removal and appointment of municipal officers; he thinks that cumulative voting ought to be adopted, in order that the minority may be “sure of a representation to detect, resist, and expose abuse”; recommends a new board, to consist of the New York Board of Fire Underwriters, the Commissioners of the Fire Department, and (possibly) the American Institute of Architects, which shall have a final voice as to all modifications of building laws. He also announces his intention of recommending to the Senate six honest and capable harbor-masters, to take the places of the sharks who now hold these positions. He refers to the alarming increase of crime, and the delays in carrying sentences into execution through the interposition of legal technicalities. “In framing our system of criminal jurisprudence, the merciful purpose of protecting the innocent from unjust conviction was kept chiefly in view. It is worthy of consideration whether, in carrying out this purpose, we may not have created impediments to the punishment of the guilty, and given a rein to crime through its impunity.” He very truly observes that “the duty of securing property from depredation and life from felonious assault . . . connects itself

closely with the durability of our political system; for if the machinery of the law proves inadequate to effect the fundamental purposes of government, it will soon be made to give way to the arm of force.” The message is throughout moderate and thoroughly sensible.

There are several things which should make all decent people hesitate long about giving serious attention to Custom-house charges of “fraud” against merchants of high standing: (1) The notorious intricacy of the revenue laws; (2) The character of our Custom-house officials, the chief of whom are politicians, engaged above all else in “serving the party,” and getting money for it; (3) The fact that a charge of fraud, if successful, entails the forfeiture of the whole value of the goods described in the invoice in which the alleged fraud is discovered; (4) The enormous reward offered for the prosecution of such charges in the division of the spoil—viz., two per cent. to the District Attorney, one-half to the Government, and one-quarter to the informer, and an equal division of what is left between the collector, naval officer, and surveyor; (5) The outrageous power lodged in the hands of the Custom-house of seizing a merchant's books and papers, and stopping his business for an indefinite period, and damaging his character, *on mere suspicion*. This last instrument of oppression and extortion, which is really exercised by a worthless band of “detectives” whom nobody would let into his house for one hour if he could help it, furnishes the explanation of the readiness of merchants to pay enormous sums by way of “compromise” the minute a charge is brought against them, anything being preferable to the summary suspension of their business. We may add that the apathy with which the public witnesses the subjection of the commercial community to this system is, in our opinion, one of the worst political signs of the times.

We say all this apropos of the case of Messrs. Phelps, Dodge & Co., which is now exciting a good deal of attention. This house has been charged with making fraudulent invoices by a thievish clerk, who is now awaiting trial for breaking into their office at night, stealing their business secrets, and selling them to rivals in the trade. He has, by way of intimidation, made charges which are undergoing investigation, and which we believe are easily explicable; but they are no sooner made than many newspapers of the country begin to gloat over the prospect of seeing a long-honored name disgraced, a great business ruined, and a great merchant torn limb from limb by a gang of political adventurers. The result of this state of things is—we say it deliberately—that just as the foreign carrying trade has passed out of American hands, under the operation of the tariff, the foreign trade is rapidly passing out of them also, under the operation of our Custom-house regulations, and into that of foreigners, who, by keeping their books and papers on the other side of the water, and dispensing with a good character on this, are able to defy the “Controllers of Primaries” and make plenty of money. There will very soon be as few Americans engaged in foreign trade as there are Americans engaged in the shipping business.

We have received from a correspondent at New Orleans a letter explanatory of the condition of affairs in Louisiana. It is in substance this: To say that Kellogg is Governor of the State in virtue of bayonet law or of any interference by any Federal judge, is to show misunderstanding of the case. The vital point of the whole controversy is, that the Eighth District Court, which is not a Federal tribunal, but a State tribunal, having full jurisdiction in the matter, decided the Bovee-Longstreet-Lynch-Hawkins Returning Board to be the legal Board, while, at about the same time, the State Supreme Court decided Bovee to be the legal Secretary of State. So, then, the Kellogg government bases its validity on the validity of its Returning Board, and the latter bases its validity on the decree of a State court having full power to decide. Judge Durell's action was incidental, and not of the essence, says our correspondent; and, admitting that everything Judge Durell has done is

unconstitutional, null, and void, the Kellogg government is, nevertheless, as firmly established on a legal and constitutional foundation as that of Governor Dix in New York; and if Mr. McEnery desires to contest the election, his proper place of appeal, the courts of the State, are open to him. This may be all true, but the fact still remains that Kellogg did not rely on the State Courts, but went into the United States Court, and from it obtained the physical force which gave him the victory over his adversaries. We see, however, that Judge Durrell declares that he sits as "the vicegerent of God," which, if true, raises his interference above criticism.

The Franco-German war, helpful to civilization as we believe it to have been in the main, has had one result which friends of universal peace must consider unfortunate. It has indefinitely postponed the realization of the scheme of international coinage, in support of which so many statisticians and publicists of all nations have been laboring for many years, and with which Mr. Samuel B. Ruggles, in our own country, is so honorably associated. There is probably no one of the small things which help to keep nations apart by impeding commerce so absurd both in form and substance as the differences in national money, and nothing does more to keep alive the delusions with regard to the nature of money in general which are the pests of political economy. We were making, it seems, considerable progress towards an assimilation of all the gold coinage of the Western world when the Prussian war broke out. In 1869 a large majority of the chambers of commerce of the various German States met in convention at Hamburg, and agreed to recommend their governments to adopt as their common monetary gold unit the French five-franc piece. Then came the war, and after it the payment of the enormous indemnity in gold to Germany, which the new empire at once began to coin into units of its own of "twenty marks," equal to $6\frac{2}{3}$ Prussian thalers, or 476.4 American cents, while the twenty-five franc piece is worth 482 cents. In 1869 Sweden contributed to the work of general unification a new coin called the "carolin," worth ten francs; but last year a convention of the three Scandinavian States adopted a new gold unit of their own also, called a gold crown, worth only 270 American cents, eight of them equal to nine German marks.

An international gold unit seems further off than it was five years ago, so far that Mr. Ruggles gives up all hope of it for the present, and urges the friends of the movement to devote themselves now, as the next best thing, to securing an assimilation of the silver coinage. There is a bill now before Congress providing for the revision of the coinage of the United States, which proposes to reduce the silver dollar from $412\frac{1}{2}$ grains to 384. The addition of $1\frac{1}{10}$ grains, or one half cent, to this would make our silver dollar precisely equal to the five-franc piece of France, Belgium, Italy and Switzerland, Spain and Greece, and just double the new silver florin of Austria, and would lead to its circulation without recoinage among a population of 120,000,000 Europeans. The Finance Committee of the Senate has reported in favor of making the required change in the new half dollar, but the National Board of Trade, on Mr. Ruggles's suggestion, urges its application to the whole dollar, and we hope they may be listened to. We should then have got some distance towards community of coinage, at least with "the Latin races," and if there were only two units afloat in the civilized world, the Latin and German, the final consummation would not be very far off.

The ex-Emperor Napoleon died rather unexpectedly, at Chiselhurst, on the 9th inst., after having undergone two or three severe operations. His condition has, however, been very poor for several years, and this probably contributed in a considerable degree to the mistakes and follies of the close of his reign. He was unable to ride on horseback during the campaign of Sedan, and thus had to exhibit himself to the army as a decrepit old man, at the moment of all in his

life when he most needed to surround himself with an air of romance. His surrender was wanting in pluck, singularly so for the hero of the Strasbourg and Boulogne exploits, which, though laughable, were certainly marked by great courage. His leading confederates in the *coup d'état*—De Morny, St. Arnaud, and Persigny—all, except Fleury, have preceded him. Fleury, who was the meanest and most money-loving of the lot, is living comfortably in England, having accumulated a "competency" through long service as "Director-General of the Haras," a delightful post for as keen a lover of horseflesh as he was. It appears to be generally supposed that the death of the Emperor makes the French political sky somewhat clearer, but this we doubt. Of his restoration, there never was any chance, while it is highly probable that his son will now be pushed as a pretender. It would be quite in keeping with the Empress's character, which is both superstitious and romantic, to bring him up as "the hope of France," and a person defrauded of his rights.

There seems to be no serious foundation for the rumor that Bismarck's resignation of the Presidency was prompted by a personal disagreement with Count Von Roon upon the Kreis-Ordnung and other recent measures of the Ministry. It is true that the Minister of War had shown some symptoms of dissent from Bismarck's later policy, and had requested to be relieved from his office; and the rumor of Von Roon's resignation, followed by his promotion to the Presidency vacated by Bismarck, gave countenance to the belief that there was some grave dissension in the Ministry itself, and that the Government was about to change front. But though there may have been shades of difference in the Ministry, and Bismarck has grown both imperious and irritable, the facts are that, on account of failing health, Von Roon requested to be relieved from the cares of office, that a partial release has been granted him, and that, as the senior member of the Ministry, he has been provisionally designated to the Presidency. The interior motives of these changes, if there are any, have been guarded with a jealous secrecy; yet there lurks in many minds the suspicion that Bismarck is planning to carry into effect his theory, that there should be but one Minister, untrammelled by his surroundings, and with powers equal to his responsibilities.

The Ministry consists of eight departments—Foreign Affairs, Army and Navy combined in one, Trade and Manufactures, Education and Religion, Agriculture, the Interior, Justice, Finance. In the sessions of the Ministry Bismarck has for ten years held the post of President, but his colleagues are not his adherents or appointees, but his equals, having co-ordinate powers. The Presidency, without giving him control of the Ministry, has made him constructively responsible to Parliament and to the country for all the acts and suggestions of all the departments, and he has been burdened and vexed with questions of trade, of finance, of education and religion, and with details of internal administration, when all his time and all his thoughts were required for the momentous measures of foreign policy, which he had originated and he alone could carry through. Besides, in bringing forward his own measures he must first harmonize his seven associates, in order that the Ministry should present a united front in Parliament, and though he was held responsible for his colleagues, they were not held responsible for his sayings and doings. His health and comfort demanded that he should rid himself of this onerous dignity. But he retains his place in the Ministry, and will naturally be the ruling spirit in its counsels; and he keeps the portfolio of foreign affairs, so that the foreign policy of Prussia will be identical with that of the German Empire, at the head of which Bismarck remains as Chancellor. The text of the royal order of December 21 relieving him of the Presidency of the Prussian Ministry, though it gives no hint of the cause of this most unlooked-for step, confirms incidentally the view we have expressed above of its origin and motive in the mind of Bismarck himself.

THE LATE FRENCH EMPEROR.

THE death of the ex-Emperor of the French (how large a part "ex" plays in titles in our day!) has happily no great political importance. He had outlived not only his power but his influence on the imagination. He leaves behind him an unfortunate boy, who will probably be brought up as "a pretender," and pass his early life in dreams and conspiracies, surrounded by priests and adventurers, but it is pretty certain that the "Napoleonic legend" has lost its hold on the French mind. The name of Napoleon is no longer associated with history and glory, but with defeat and humiliation such as France has never experienced. The closing campaigns of Napoleon the First in 1813 and 1815, though almost as disastrous in their results as that of Sedan, left but little sting behind. They were examples of consummate military skill, and followed close on twenty years of almost unbroken conquest, during which the eagles were carried in triumph into nearly every capital of Europe; and the Emperor surrendered his sword, ruined, it is true, but still the terror of his brother sovereigns, who could not sleep till he was shut up on a distant island, watched by a great navy. The Liberal party in France under the Restoration, therefore, found no difficulty in adopting him as a hero, and making his fate the burden of their patriotic lamentations in their attacks upon Louis XVIII. The men who turned their backs at Waterloo still wore those "habits bleus par la Victoire usés" of which Béranger sang. The contrast offered by the close of his career to Louis Napoleon's wandering, a helpless invalid, in quest of the victor, for the purpose of "laying his sword at his feet," is too painful for any dynasty to support with impunity; and "the heir to the throne," besides having to carry the heavy load of his father's incompetency, starts with one of his own hardly less heavy, in the shape of a ridiculous entry on public life. The rôle of a pretender to the crown of France is a sufficiently difficult one in our day, under the most favorable circumstances, but to begin it as the Prince Imperial did with the episode at Saarbrück, in 1870, is to make success all but impossible.

Nevertheless, it cannot be denied that the events which have followed the close of the war have done something to wipe out the shame of the war itself, and to rouse sympathy for the fallen Emperor in quarters in which it had long been extinct or had never been felt. The Commune did much for his memory, and will continue to do much. It furnished to a great many people, if not justification, considerable palliation for much of what was most hateful in his career. It was taken, and will continue to be taken, by many as a specimen of the evils from which he for twenty years saved France. He was not a soldier, all must admit; but he at least, say thousands, gave France a quarter of a century of security and quiet; and that the task was not an easy one, anybody can see who watches the efforts of all the parties whom he so long kept under his heel to erect a new government on the ruins of his. And then he was a kind-hearted man. He swept the streets of his own capital with grapeshot, and gave the French Treasury up to a band of gamblers and blacklegs; but he used a good deal of the money in the alleviation of individual suffering or misfortune. Tears flow over his bier on this account from hundreds of eyes as they flowed here over Fisk's. As "the heart" gains ascendancy in politics, the multitude of rascals who collect under "the mantle of charity" grows larger and larger. The assemblage of gentlemen who in the politics of many countries are covered by that particular garment is one of the oddest on which the eye of the philosopher has ever rested.

The ex-Emperor's success, however, is very suggestive in one way. It was achieved by the supply of a want which France, owing to peculiarities in her recent history and in the national character, felt more than other nations, but which all nations feel, and some feel more and more every day—viz., repose. During the protracted struggle for a share in the government which has been going on in Europe, ever since the Reformation, on the part of the middle and lower classes, political activity not unnaturally came to be regarded

as the highest political good. A chance to vote and legislate and "manage," which had been so long the prerogative of kings and aristocrats, became the dearest ambition of the Average Man, until at last in our time it is by multitudes almost forgotten that government is but a means to an end—a contrivance to enable men to follow their callings, bring up their children, and add to the stores of human knowledge, in peace and quiet, and not in itself the object of their existence. Indeed, the ideal society of many progressive people is one in which the citizen is for ever either running for office himself, or nominating somebody else for office, or voting at the polls, or watching other people voting, or passing bills for the regulation of his neighbors' concerns. The process through which the world has been going on this point is somewhat analogous to that through which the European armies went between 1815 and 1851, described by Kinglake in his 'History of the Crimean War,' and which made a fine appearance on parade and not fighting the chief end of a military force, and elicited from a Russian Grand Duke the remark "that he hated war, because it spoiled the troops." Nevertheless, it is easily seen that as society grows richer and busier, its work harder, its machinery more delicate, the relations of individuals to each other more numerous and difficult of adjustment, constant preoccupation about politics becomes more and more irksome, and the insecurity and uncertainty which great political activity breeds more intolerable. The French reached the point of utter disgust and weariness sooner than other people, partly because there is more impatience in their temperament, and partly because their politicians are unusually bad and unskillful. But, as the world becomes industrial and commercial, the tendency towards this point grows stronger everywhere, and it is out of this weariness and disgust that Cæsars make their fortunes, and that Louis Napoleon made his. He was a good specimen of a bad class, and it is a class which is by no means extinct. Nothing but enormous improvements in administration, which will make the work of government easier to the citizen and more efficient, will prevent this class from gaining strength, in one disguise or another. Tweed and Sweeney were not called emperors, but they did in a small way the imperial work, and they, or their like, will always be impending over us as long as American citizens allow politicians to impose on them the incessant political fuss of the Athenian democracy—a democracy in which nearly every voter was a loafer who passed his days in the sun chopping logic, and was obliged to keep electing and debating in order to kill time. A certain amount of politics is a means of culture to every people; but when politics becomes so complicated as to furnish a livelihood to "professionals," "professionals" are pretty sure in our time to have it to themselves—a fact which Louis Napoleon discovered twenty years ago, and turned to account.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE ALABAMA DAMAGES.

WE publish elsewhere a letter on this subject from an able correspondent. We do not exactly understand what he means by saying, in reply to the *Nation*, that there is no evidence that the claims of the "United States for the destruction of public vessels and other property were rejected." We never said there was. The seventh article of the Treaty of Washington requires that the Tribunal shall first determine, as to each vessel, whether Great Britain has by any act or omission failed, etc., and shall certify such facts as to each of said vessels." The tenth article directed the board of assessors to ascertain and determine "the amount which should be paid by Great Britain on account of the liability arising from such failure as to each vessel." Turning to Vol. VII. of the 'Claims of the United States against Great Britain,' containing the details, we find only one claim of the United States set forth, namely, that for the destruction of the revenue cutter *Caleb Cushing*, cut out of Portland harbor, and this is valued at \$25,000. To this must be added, however, the destruction of the steamer *Hatteras* and of two coal brigs by the *Alabama*, though there is no mention of it in

the "Case." Whether these claims were proved before the Tribunal we do not know; but we have very good means of determining whether they were included either by the parties or the Tribunal under the head of what are called "national losses," or, to recur to the phrase used in the article to which our correspondent refers, "damage received as a nation." The preamble of the supplemented article drafted by Lord Granville, and accepted on this point by Mr. Fish and the Senate, defines the term "national losses" as meaning the "transfer of the American commercial marine to the British flag; the enhanced payments of insurance; the prolongation of the war; the addition of a large sum to the cost of the war; and the suppression of the rebellion." The supplementary article broke down on another point; but the above claims were the "national losses," or "damage received as a nation," which Count Sclopis, on behalf of the Tribunal, declared "wholly excluded from the consideration of the Tribunal in making its award." This is all we meant to say. That the United States could come in and claim, as an individual, for property actually destroyed by the cruisers, for which Great Britain was found liable, of course no one doubts; but in dividing the money, the Government is as much bound, morally, to retain only the cost of the property actually destroyed by certain specified vessels, as it is to pay over to private citizens the sum coming to them for losses sustained under similar circumstances.

That "the arbitration was a transaction between two nations" is plain enough; but "that no individuals were or could be recognized in it" is something we fail to see. Individuals did not appear before the Tribunal, it is true, but that was because our Government appeared for them. The losses of individuals, as such, formed the whole subject-matter of the debate; in fact, under the ruling of the arbitrators on the indirect claims, had the United States not been able to say that a man called A lost so much, and a man called B lost so much, through the operations of this or that vessel, there would have been absolutely no case whatever before the Tribunal, and no award would have been made. The whole matter would have fallen to the ground. "The sum when paid will," it is true, "be held by the United States, trammelled by no technical rules of municipal law," but this is simply because the Government is above the law, and not because municipal law does not furnish good rules of distribution. Nor can we see that "the money was paid as a matter of comity between nations." It was paid as a matter of right, and was demanded as a matter of right, and not as a matter of "civility" or "good breeding," as Noah Webster says. In other words, it was paid by England as a wrongdoer to compensate certain determinate persons for certain determinate losses suffered through her wrong-doing; and though, as our correspondent says, "the courts have no control over it, and the Legislature must determine where it shall go," the duty of the Legislature with regard to it does not for this reason differ from its duty with regard to any other national trust or liability. The payment of a gross sum to the United States was not an acknowledgment that our Government might exercise absolute discretion in the matter of the final disposition of the fund, but simply the imposition on the United States, as the agent best competent to perform it, of the duty of finding out what persons were entitled to the money, which would otherwise have devolved upon a board of assessors. Our Government is, therefore, trustee of the fund under certain restrictions imposed by the American pleadings and proofs before the Tribunal, and by the grounds on which the arbitrators based their decision, both of which are, of course, perfectly well known. That the money was intended "to relieve the hardships of the war growing out of the depredations of the Confederate cruisers," is a proposition too vague in its terms to be traversed. What were those "hardships"? Would not a phrase of this kind justify the use of the fund to endow a soldiers' home or to lighten taxation? In short, the Government has received the money for the satisfaction of certain claims, for certain specific losses caused by certain specific acts. Under what rules should it proceed in ascertaining who are the holders

of the claims? If the Government were an individual, the courts would furnish these rules, and they would be those by which the transactions of business men are regulated all over the civilized world, and which the experience of many generations has approved as fairest and most expedient. Our correspondent thinks the Government, however, ought to disregard these rules, but he does not give any better reason for it than that it *may* disregard them if it pleases.

We must not be understood, in saying this, to find any fault on the score of abstract justice or "equity" with the rules he lays down in his letter. They are good enough, or would be, if they were to be applied to simple division of a charitable donation among a body of direct sufferers from a fire or shipwreck. The fault we find with them is that they disregard the machinery provided by civilization for lessening or distributing certain risks of trade and commerce and manufactures, and refuse to take any count of the state of mind in which men enter into a certain class of transactions. These are things recognized by the courts on grounds of utility, which long usage has converted into practical justice, and which the Government has no more right to overlook than Smith or Jones, and which it is, for obvious reasons, far more dangerous for the Government to overlook than for individuals. The very doctrine which our correspondent now urges was produced in 1867 by General Butler and Senator Morton with regard to the public debt—we beg his pardon for mentioning him in the same sentence—and it is in substance this, that a government, not being amenable to the law, is justified, whenever it finds itself in the position of an obligor, in ascertaining, not what the obligee expected when he advanced his money, but what he is likely to make by the transaction, and in deducting this sum from the amount of its liabilities. This is in one sense "equity," but in another sense it is cheating. A man who bought Government bonds in 1862 at 50 did so amidst a set of conditions, some external and some internal, which to him formed part of the contract. In other words, he took certain heavy risks, on the understanding that he would, if he escaped them, be compensated for his courage and anxiety. What Butler wished to have the Government do was, when the risks had passed away, to apply the principles of "equity" to the case, and give the creditor back exactly what he paid, and to disregard the state of mind in which he lent the money.

Such a doctrine, if adopted by the community, would of course ruin the business of insurance completely, and we should be sorry to see the Government sanction it even for \$15,000,000. The insurance business is conducted on a calculation of chances and under certain precautions which would be absolutely worthless if exposed to have its contracts upset or its expectations frustrated by curious enquiries into the amount of its receipts. Suppose Mr. Vanderbilt had insured his vessels—which we believe he never did—with a marine company, and for many years had had no losses, and at last ran one of his vessels ashore, and was paid her full value, how would it do to permit him to refuse to surrender the wreck to the underwriters on the ground that they had received far more from him in premiums than the amount of his policy? We do not say that the Geneva award is exactly salvage, but it is so like it that the Government ought to think twice before disregarding in its distribution all the rules of law governing salvage, and indeed all the usages on which the insurance business is based. "Equity," administered by totally irresponsible bodies of persons like our Congress, is apt to be a very queer article, and, as long as we have courts and law-books, the less we have of it, the better. The usual result of an attempt by Congress to distribute money on principles of abstract justice is that nobody gets anything. The history of the French Spoliation Claims furnishes a capital illustration of the qualifications of the legislature for any such task, and the result in that case has been defended by Republican organs within a few weeks on the "broad ground" that if the Government only keeps a man out of his money till he dies, the claims of his heirs and representatives become too shadowy and remote for consideration.

We ought to point out, in conclusion, that there is no human tribunal capable of deciding to what extent war premiums were caused by the cruisers for which the British were held responsible, and thus carrying out our correspondent's suggestion that such war premiums should be refunded, if lost through the sale of goods imported in neutral bottoms in competition with those imported under the United States flag. This, like some other questions which have been raised in this controversy, is one of the things which will only be cleared up at the last great day. Mr. Pomeroy's position on this subject was only tenable on the supposition that Great Britain was held responsible for *all* the Confederate cruisers, as she would have been if, for instance, Mr. Seward's theory of the effect of belligerent rights had held water.

AFFAIRS AT WASHINGTON.

WASHINGTON, January 11, 1873.

THE *Crédit Mobilier* investigation is still the sensation of the hour. The published testimony has produced a painful impression. There were but few people who believed that the statements made by Col. McComb last summer in the Philadelphia trial were entirely groundless. But the prompt, emphatic, and sweeping denials put forth by most of the Congressmen whose names had been mentioned in connection with the business had found general credit. Now it turns out that in most cases those denials had been too sweeping, that the Congressmen in question had not told the whole truth, and that their explanations have to be further explained. The best friends of these gentlemen admit that this is much to be regretted. Nobody here seriously thinks that such men as Garfield, Dawes, Senator Wilson, and others I might name, deliberately sold their influence in Congress to the *Crédit Mobilier* or any other corporation, or that they sought to enrich themselves by corrupt practices of any sort. In fact, the very smallness of the sums involved in the alleged transactions makes the idea appear almost ludicrous, considering the influential position of those gentlemen in Congress. But it is also thought that the persons concerned would to-day stand in a much more favorable light before the country had they, when the matter was first discussed in the public prints, made a perfectly clean breast of it instead of resorting to vague generalities with loopholes in them. Their conduct has been such as to impair the public confidence in the statements of men who have always been believed to be honest and honorable. Moreover, the testimony of Oakes Ames with regard to some of these individual cases is so indistinct and unsatisfactory, owing to his wonderfully bad memory, as to create the impression that there is much more behind that has not yet been told. The case of Mr. James Brooks is looked upon as a desperate one, and Mr. Colfax's statement, which makes him appear as a benevolent creditor of the Massachusetts capitalist to the amount of \$500, has created much amusement, as a fair specimen of that kind of explanations which make a thing appear worse than it really is. On the whole, the disclosures already made have excited the suspicion that the real evil-doers have not yet been discovered, and that we have touched only the outlines of a vast system of corruption. The books of the *Crédit Mobilier* and the examination of Mr. Durant are in this respect looked for with eager interest. There is a rumor afloat that the *Crédit Mobilier*, or its leading spirits, have contributed large sums of money to procure the election of certain Congressmen, and that this also will appear in the progress of the investigation. In the meantime, an enquiry has been begun by the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections into the money transactions connected with Mr. Caldwell's election to the Senate, and this also wears a very ugly look. It is understood that a similar enquiry will be moved when Mr. Patterson, who stands publicly accused of having bought his way through the Legislature of South Carolina, presents himself in the Senate. Things of this kind are rapidly accumulating, and there is a vague fear springing up that, if the investigations go on, a mass of rottenness will be laid bare which will amaze the people. I heard a Congressman say that the investigating business must be stopped, or it will destroy all confidence in the integrity of public men. To stop the investigations entirely will, of course, now be impossible; but the alarm is spreading, and an attempt is not unlikely to be made by political managers to have the work done as superficially as possible, and to fall back upon the old practice of whitewashing. One good effect these investigations seem to have produced already. Congressmen are beginning to perceive that it is quite unsafe to have their names involved in "job-legislation," and I learn that some comprehensive schemes which were to be pressed this winter have virtually been given up for the time being.

As the principal leaders of the Administration party in the Senate whose terms expire on the 4th of March, Messrs. Morton, Cameron, Conkling, and Howe, have been or will be re-elected "triumphantly" and without apparent opposition in their own party, the "Senatorial Ring" so called will remain unbroken, unless disturbed by personal jealousies among themselves. Now that the Presidential election is over, and the President of their choice is secure in his place for another four years, the question presents itself who is to wield the greatest power under and through him. Morton, Conkling, and Edmunds will undoubtedly aspire to the leadership in the Senate, with the chances in favor of Mr. Conkling, who represents the greatest State, is the most magnificent in speech and the most assuming in deportment. It is said that while before his "triumph" in New York he would have been satisfied with a seat on the Supreme Bench, he thinks now that the Presidency itself would not be too good a thing for him. Morton has long been troubled by the same ambition, and his achievements during the late canvass have shown that his bodily infirmities do not unfit him for hard work. We may look, therefore, for a lively race between these two candidates for the succession. In the Senate they have an open field, while at the White House the supremacy of their influence will be contested by such statesmen as Cameron and Chandler, who, indeed, do not shine in debate, but understand the tricks of the trade as well as anybody, "inside politics," and are apt to get ahead of their more showy rivals in the matter of management. But each one of these gentlemen is said to appear sometimes seriously puzzled as to the influence which is really most potent with the President. The latter will now and then do things about which neither of the above-named party managers has been consulted, apparently acting upon advice of which nobody seems to know whence it comes. The Administration leaders in Congress are, therefore, sometimes under the necessity of defending and advocating things for which they would rather not assume the responsibility, in order to preserve the influence which they possess, and to show themselves worthy of more. So it was during General Grant's first term, and it will probably remain so. On the whole, we have to expect a continuation of the old fights, pretty much in the old form, and between the same sets of men, only that Mr. Trumbull will drop out on the 4th of March, which will be a very serious loss to the friends of genuine reform. At the commencement of this session there were a good many men here who hoped that the President would turn over a new leaf after his success in the election. But, in the light of current events, that hope is growing fainter every day. The President's order to the Federal office-holders in Louisiana, either to stop taking an active part in State politics or to resign their Federal offices, was indeed a sign of new promise in the direction of civil-service reform; but on the other hand, newly elected Congressmen whose term will begin on the 4th of March, and "meritorious workers" who distinguished themselves in the late campaign, are already gathering here with an eye to a "new deal" in the Federal patronage, and scarcely anybody believes that the President's reform zeal will resist the pressure. Thus the dreary prospect of a repetition of the old struggle opens itself before us, and it will require new and stirring incidents to impart to it the charm of freshness.

The Democratic leaders seem to have made up their minds that, after the great disaster of last fall, the reorganization of the Democratic party on the old basis must be attempted. Some of them still indulge in the old talk about their three millions of voters and the strength of their party discipline, which has a somewhat ludicrous sound after the experience they have just gone through. It almost looks as if they needed a few more defeats to make them understand at last that the people will not trust the power of the Government in the hands of the old Democratic organization. If defeats are needed to that end, they will certainly come.

ENGLAND—MR. GLADSTONE'S SPEECH-MAKING.

LONDON, Dec. 27, 1872.

THE old year is taking leave of us very quietly. No very conspicuous agitation is going forward, and the British public is able to solace itself by contemplating the baby hippopotamus at the Zoological Gardens, looking at Mme. Tussaud's waxwork show, and, in other similar methods, paying what is considered to be fit homage to the social associations of the season with a tolerably disengaged mind. Rather small incidents are sufficient to amuse us under the circumstances, though they excite warmth enough to show that we are not altogether absorbed in peace and good-will towards all mankind. I must, however, in the first place, notice one event of a more melancholy nature which has occurred since my last letter. Mr. Disraeli has lost his wife, Lady Beaconsfield, amidst the general sympathy even of his

opponents. His political career was much facilitated, if not made possible, by his marriage, and his wife's devoted interest in his success was known to every one. Probably your readers are already acquainted with the story how on the occasion of some important debate she had accompanied her husband to the House of Commons in a carriage, the door of which was carelessly closed upon her hand; and how she heroically concealed the pain of a crushed finger in order that her husband's nerves might not be shaken on the eve of action. That such a domestic blow should, for a time, protect Mr. Disraeli from hostile remarks, and call forth some positive expressions of sympathy, is only right and natural; and it is to be hoped that he has not read some articles in which the gush of good feeling from avowed enemies has been rather unctuous, not to say fulsome. That political generosity has not been everywhere pushed to a Quixotic extreme seemed to be proved by a recent utterance of a frail old Tory nobleman. Lord Radnor presented some agricultural club in Wiltshire with a "good old English baron of beef," and promised, so it was reported, to send two barons next year in case Mr. Gladstone had "gone the way of all flesh." However, as his son writes, to the *Times* to-day to explain that it was not Mr. Gladstone but Mr. Gladstone's administration that was to go the way of all flesh, the point of the story is spoilt.

Mr. Gladstone has been very lively of late, and has incidentally exhibited some of those queer streaks of eccentricity which blend so oddly with his general ability. He was reported to have said the other day, but it seems that reporters are not very trustworthy at Christmas time, that "every day must begin for him with his old friend Homer." Mr. Gladstone's faithful supporters were thrown into ecstasies of admiration. The *Spectator* plunged into profound psychological speculations as to the secret bond of harmony which somehow made it part of the essential fitness of things that the ancient Greek poetry should provide the richest nourishment for the soul of our modern statesman. It discovered that the same conception of the universe was at the bottom of Mr. Gladstone's statesmanship and Homer's poetry. According to Goethe, it seems, Homer regarded life as a conflict and a hell; and it was of course easy to demonstrate that Mr. Gladstone also regarded life as a conflict and a hell. The *Spectator* belongs to the philosophical school of the late Mr. Maurice, and seems to have inherited his extraordinary ingenuity in showing that any given opinion is at bottom the same as any other opinion. No doubt it would have been equally capable of proving upon occasion that Mr. Gladstone conceived of life as a peaceful heaven. The *Telegraph* is less given to refined speculations, though it idolizes Mr. Gladstone with a fervor so marked as to be a little damaging to its object. The *Telegraph* is supposed to enjoy the personal confidence of the minister to a degree which is not a little remarkable. Mr. Gladstone is a man of taste and refinement. The *Telegraph* panders to the appetite of the lower middle classes for a kind of unctuous balderdash which is singularly offensive to most cultivated minds. However, flattery seldom shocks its recipient, however gross the incense; and Mr. Gladstone, it would seem, really likes to be called "the people's William," and acknowledges the loyalty of those who bespatter him with such praise by what is generally thought to be unworthy condescension. It has even been generally rumored that the services of the *Telegraph* were to be acknowledged by the bestowal of a baronetcy on a person whose fitness for that honor was not very manifest to the ordinary mind. The *Telegraph* was of course in raptures with this revelation of the premier's habits. In a fine flow of eloquence, it discoursed upon this marvellous union of the scholar and the statesman, and declared that official labors which would break down the constitution of most men allowed Mr. Gladstone to prosecute the studies of his youth with a vigor and an energy which the keenest Heidelberg professor might envy. It did not hint that Mr. Gladstone has talked an amount of nonsense about Homer which Heidelberg or other professors contemplate with simple amazement. However, Mr. Gladstone has cruelly struck away the foundation of all these finespun speculations and this glowing rhetoric. It seems, according to the true version of his speech, it was not "every day," but every enquiry into certain historical subjects, that must for him begin with his old friend Homer. In fact, he has not read Homer consecutively during the last four years, and has not devoted to Homeric studies during that time more days than could be counted on the fingers. The whole beautiful fabric of speculation is thus demolished at one blow, and poor Mr. Gladstone is reduced to the standard of human nature. Even he cannot be at once a prime minister of England and a German professor.

It might be wished, however, that he could confine himself a little more closely to his ministerial functions. Although Mr. Gladstone, sleeping with Homer under his pillow, must be regarded as a purely fancy portrait, it is true that the old Oxford habits of thought make their appearance at times in very singular fashion; and that life, if it is not "a conflict and a hell" to him, is always provoking him to unnecessary ebullitions of sensibility. A

Protestant clergyman in Ireland wrote to him the other day to put these singular questions: "Can you, as an Englishman, tell Irishmen as such that you have done to them and theirs as in the same case you would be done by? Or can you, as a son of man, tell him, the Son of Man, that you have dealt and are still dealing with him as he commanded?" Mr. Gladstone thought it necessary to explain his reasons for answering these questions in the affirmative instead of putting them in his waste-paper basket. Not long ago he went out of his way to advertise a blasphemous hymn-book of Mr. Bradlaugh's, and recently he has been making a speech which is really a curiosity in its way. He had promised to distribute prizes to a school at Liverpool, and of course he had to make a speech on the occasion. We all remember with what good-humor and shrewd sense Lord Palmerston used to discharge such duties, and, though Mr. Gladstone is in all essential respects a man of incomparably higher intellect than "Pam.," it is curious to remark the contrast. He could not help going into one of the most inappropriate discussions which could possibly be brought before a schoolboy audience. It seems that Mr. Gladstone has recently been reading Strauss's book, 'Der alte und neue Glaube.' It seems, too, that the book has very much puzzled and vexed him. In this there is nothing surprising. For a High Churchman of the Oxford type it is in many ways disagreeable to read a book in which a grave and learned professor, who has made the subject the study of a life, declares his profound conviction that all belief in the supernatural must be abandoned, and that the resurrection of Christ, if we are invited to receive it as a matter of fact, must be regarded as a "welthistorische Humbug." The phenomenon is clearly one which demands the attention of statesmen as well as divines. The odd thing is that Mr. Gladstone is so overflowing with the speculations to which it has given rise in his mind, that with characteristic intellectual incontinence he finds himself impelled to bestow them upon a set of schoolboys. He of course confesses that it would be absurd for him to attempt the refutation of Strauss under such circumstances. It may be added, that from the hints which he throws out it would probably be very rash in him to attempt the refutation of Strauss under any circumstances. His principal argument appears to be that as a good many doctrines were settled at the Council of Nice many hundred years ago, in which most Christians have ever since acquiesced, it would be a pity to reopen them again. The argument, if it is an argument, is not one which will very much trouble historical enquirers of the school of Strauss. But the question remains why Mr. Gladstone, being unable to refute Strauss, and being therefore able to do nothing but comment on the awful nature of his opinions, should have done so to a set of schoolboys. Why could he not simply hold his tongue? The only effect which he has produced upon their minds is to inform them that a very able and thoughtful enquirer has declared Christianity to be all moonshine, and to add that he, Mr. Gladstone, is very much frightened, and hopes that they will not think so too.

The reason of this strange performance is of course simple enough. Mr. Gladstone did not adopt the obvious course of holding his tongue because he is totally incapable of holding his tongue. That is the weakness which irritates and discourages his followers. They can never be certain that he will not at any moment burst out with some perfectly gratuitous bit of imprudence. Even his antagonists admit his extraordinary ability in his own particular province. There is no one among his colleagues, though they include some very able men, who can be compared to him for an instant for grasp of a complicated financial and legislative question and for power of expounding it. After everything has been said against him, the fact remains that he has beyond all comparison the most comprehensive and versatile intellect in his party, or indeed in Parliament. But his strength is alloyed by this incomprehensible weakness. Mandeville called Addison "a parson in a tie-wig," and Mr. Gladstone sometimes seems to be a High-Church curate placed by some strange freak of fortune upon the Treasury Bench. Incomparable in making a budget speech intelligible and almost poetical, he descends suddenly to the level of a popular preacher when the impulse unfortunately takes him. The main result of his last performance will be to give an excellent advertisement to Strauss, and we shall probably soon see a translation, with a testimony to the singular ability of the performance from the Prime Minister of England. To that I have personally no objection whatever; but Mr. Gladstone will have wantonly shocked a good many of his supporters, and helped to ruin whatever character he had left for common sense and prudence.

On the day of Mr. Gladstone's performance at Liverpool, two other prominent members of Parliament, Mr. Bruce and Mr. Mundella, were also making speeches about education. The subject is plainly coming up again for discussion, and amongst other points which will probably excite some interest is the proposed reconstruction of our universities. A commission recently appointed will soon publish a report upon their endowments, and

it is supposed that the revenues will turn out to be so great as to excite the cupidity of various schemers. The question is a very large one, and I shall probably be obliged to speak of it at length before the end of next session. Meanwhile, I will merely remark that there seem at present to be two parties. There are the pure utilitarians, who would wish to apply part of the revenues to the encouragement of technical education in our large towns, or to some similar purpose. These, however, are not at present a numerous or a noisy body. The larger number of University reformers are anxious to remodel them in such a way as to make them worthy centres both of the higher education and of original research, and to remove some of the anomalies derived from mediæval times, which at once hamper the activity of the universities and tend to make them obnoxious to the utilitarians. There are, however, so many difficulties in the way of adopting any generally acceptable scheme that these reformers are very much divided amongst themselves. Great changes may certainly be anticipated, but it is difficult to foretell what form they will probably take. To make the points at issue at all intelligible, I must go into the matter rather more fully than I can do at present, and I therefore postpone the subject till another opportunity.

Correspondence.

THE \$15,500,000.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the able article of December 26, entitled "What shall be done about our Fifteen-and-a-half Millions?" there are some statements which seem to call for a reply. It is stated that all the Alabama claims by the United States for damages received as a nation were rejected at Geneva. It is true that the claims for the cost of pursuit of the Confederate cruisers were rejected on the ground that they could not be distinguished from the general expenses of the war; but there is no evidence that the claims of the United States for the destruction of public vessels and other property were rejected.

A brief examination of a part of the treaty, of the Case presented by the United States, and of the award, will show what was rejected and what was allowed.

By the treaty it was agreed that all claims *growing out of* the acts committed by the several vessels which have given rise to the claims generically known as the Alabama Claims should be referred.

After the ruling out of the indirect claims, the Case of the United States covered (1) losses growing out of the destruction of vessels and their cargoes by the insurgent cruisers, (2) the national expenditures in pursuit of those cruisers.

Under the first head, ships of the United States as well as of individuals were included. The United States did not prove any claims in detail, and in case the Tribunal did not award a sum in gross, reserved a right to present further claims and further evidence in support of the claims presented and of any further claims.

The Tribunal rejected the claims for the cost of pursuit for the reasons above stated. It also rejected the claim for prospective earnings and "set aside all double claims for the same losses, and all claims for gross freights, so far as they exceed net freights." It then awarded a gross sum of \$15,500,000 to be paid to the United States, and then awarded that all claims referred to in the treaty, whether presented or not, were to be "henceforth considered and treated as finally settled, barred, and inadmissible." The award, therefore, covers all claims *growing out of the acts committed by the several vessels* for which Great Britain was held liable, except those expressly rejected. The arbitration was a transaction between two nations; no individuals were, or could be, recognized in it. The fund, when paid, will be held by the United States, trammelled by no technical rules of municipal law, but simply to relieve the hardships which have grown out of the depredations of the Confederate cruisers. The money was paid as a matter of comity between nations. No individual has strictly any legal right or property in it. The courts have no control over it, the legislature must determine where it shall go. In this view only can the duty of the United States be made clear.

To whom, then, should the United States pay this money?

1. There are the uninsured owners of ships and cargoes. They suffer losses growing out of the acts of the cruisers. The officers and crews of vessels destroyed lost time and property, and perhaps suffered in their persons; and for these they should receive compensation.

2. The owners of ships and cargoes who were fully insured, and received their insurance, lost nothing by the destruction of their property; they should recover nothing. Their claims can only rest upon the technical

ground that they had the legal title to the property destroyed. But in substance they lost nothing, and the United States should look to substantial and not technical losses.

3. The insurance companies, if on the whole they lost nothing in consequence of these depredations, if their war premiums exceeded their losses, have no better claim than the insured owner. It may be admitted, for the sake of the argument, that if the insured owner has a right to the fund, and obtains it, the courts would compel him to transfer it to the underwriter, to whom he may have abandoned it. But, as we have seen, the owner has no right to it, and should not receive it. The insurance companies will, therefore, stand on the merits of their direct claims on the Government. Unless they can show losses growing out of the depredations, they should retain nothing.

4. The owners of ships and cargoes who paid the war premiums, or who, in other words, made up the fund from which the owners of the ships and cargoes destroyed were reimbursed, have an equitable claim, unless they received back their war premiums in the enhanced price of freight or merchandise.

It is said that they did not receive them back, but that merchandise imported under the flag of the United States was sold in competition with that imported in neutral bottoms, and that the war premiums were wholly lost. If this is so, these war premiums should be reimbursed, certainly to the extent to which they were caused by the cruisers for whose injuries Great Britain has been held liable.

Most of these premiums were deposited with mutual insurance companies, and would have been returned to those who advanced them if they had not been appropriated to indemnify the insured owners of ships and cargoes. The mutual companies are mere stakeholders, who receive premiums upon trust to pay out of them such losses as may happen, and to return the balance to the depositors of the premiums. They returned less because of these losses. This fund received from England should make up the deficiency.

Assuming that the shipowner has abandoned a right to a mutual insurance company, that company is merely a trustee for those who paid the premiums, and the United States should pay the money directly to those who are really entitled to it. If it goes to the insurance companies, they may attempt to divide it, and, perhaps, under technical rules of law, might divide it among their present members, who have no claim, either legal or equitable, to the fund.

The claim to war premiums is clearly stated by Mr. Pomeroy in an able article in the January number of the *American Law Review*. He says: "The claim of compensation for enhanced rates of insurance paid by American shipowners and shippers was in no respect indirect; . . . its amount could have been proved with exactness, and its necessary connection with the wrong was as plain as that of the capture of ships and cargoes; indeed, it stood upon exactly the same footing as the captures. During the progress of the general controversy it was urged that the injured shipowners and shippers were insured, and that even the losses paid to them by the underwriters were made up by the increased premiums for war risks. If this were all true, it only pushed the loss one step further back; it did not make the loss any the less or any the less certain. It is enough to say that every owner of an American ship, and every shipment of cargo by an American owner, and every dollar of increased insurance paid for such ship or cargo, can be proved with absolutely certainty; and that the claim for such enhanced insurance was in every respect as direct as the claim for destroyed ships and goods. This claim, so just, so certain, so direct, was lost by the inaccurate arrangement and classification made by the persons who composed the Case."

To this statement of Mr. Pomeroy there can be no objection except to the last clause. The claims for war premiums were rejected, when presented as distinct from, and *in addition to*, the claims growing out of the destruction of ships and cargoes. The premiums were received by the underwriters as the equivalents for the ships and cargoes destroyed. The war premiums are the exact measure of the injury caused to parties who insured, and the value of the ships and cargoes destroyed is another measure of the amount of the same damages. Both should not be allowed. The Tribunal did not reject the claims for war premiums as a measure of the damages or as the equivalent for the insured ships and cargoes destroyed. ***

"THE MODE OF ELECTING THE PRESIDENT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with some surprise the article in the *Nation* of January 2 on "The Mode of Electing the President." The *Nation* evidently inclines to a change in the Constitution which shall remit this question to be decided

by a majority of the popular vote of the whole country, irrespective of territorial limits.

This discussion is, I believe, by no means new. If the *Nation* will turn, for instance, to the *American Journal of Social Science*, it will find in No. I. (pp. 93-96) the election of the President by a majority of the popular vote discussed, and, in No. II. (p. 148), it will find the proposition abandoned—and this, too, for an obvious reason. We have heard something of election frauds, doctored returns, and candidates "counted in" in this country. Recently, in the well-ordered city of Boston, we have seen one ward try to "return" a mayor. In electing a President, we, in the better-ordered communities, may now regard with some degree of complacency frauds which, only at most effect the electoral vote of one State, no matter how large. How we should regard vast "Pembina" majorities rolled up from the wilderness to offset our registered ballots, is wholly another question. Are not the temptations and opportunities for election frauds great enough now that we should amend the Constitution so as to make the first irresistible and the last unpreventable?

To avoid the possibility of an evil from which we never have suffered, it is proposed to rush on to an evil from which we have repeatedly suffered—an evil the most fatal to, and inseparable from, any system of universal suffrage. So far from the remedy lying in the direction suggested by your article of the 2d inst., it would seem to lie in the exactly opposite direction. The effects of fraud should be localized, and not still further extended. This was the conclusion arrived at four years ago, after the most thorough discussion of this long-vexed question; and the following proposed amendment to the Constitution was then submitted to Congress in accordance with it. It was never acted upon, but it will be found in House Docs., 3d Session, XLth Congress, Report No. 31:

ARTICLE.

"The electors of President and Vice-President shall be chosen as follows:

"Two electors of President and Vice-President shall be chosen at large, from each State, by the qualified voters therein.

"A number of electors in each State equal to the whole number of representatives to which such State may be entitled in Congress, shall be chosen in single districts of contiguous and compact territory, each containing, as nearly as practicable, an equal amount of population.

"Congress shall prescribe the mode of determining the validity of the choice of electors, and of contesting the right to the office of President and Vice-President."

Under this system of election, local frauds, no matter how extensive, could only affect three electoral votes, instead of thirty-six, as at present, on the final result, in case of choice by popular majority.

Under it the electoral college might be abolished, if thought necessary, and the votes of the several States returned by State or United States officials as so many electoral votes cast for such and such candidates. This would be election by local popular majorities.

The death of a candidate, successful or otherwise, as in the case of Mr. Greeley, would not affect the result any more in this case than under a system of direct voting. In each case the votes are lost, as needs must be, if a candidate dies.

Under such a system of small local results, the chances are infinite that the aggregate of local majorities will almost exactly reflect the general vote.

Finally, the "man inside politics" loses his greatest inducement to commit frauds when he finds that the effects of fraud are reduced to a minimum.

This question is important. In discussing it, I hope the *Nation* will not find in it another argument in favor of the destruction of one of the few remaining barriers against a general centralization. A.

Boston, January 4, 1873.

[The only thing to which the *Nation* really "inclines" is some change which will prevent the possibility of the purchase of the Presidency some fine day from three or four gentlemen holding "the balance of power" in the college. We have men among us now who would give a million for a chance of "moving the crops." They have debauched the Senate, and they are rapidly debauching all bodies small enough to be purchasable. But whether popular election is the best mode of preventing this, we do not feel sure.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

A WORK in some respects overlapping Mr. Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Familiar Quotations' will be Mr. S. Austin Allibone's 'New Dictionary of Poetical Quotations,' covering the entire field of British and American

poetry from the time of Chaucer to the present day. The work will have three indexes, and will be published by J. B. Lippincott & Co. They have also in press a translation, by George Vandenhoff, of Dumas's 'L'Homme-Femme'—'Man-Woman'; and, by Mary G. Wells, of Mme. Guizot de Witt's 'Marie Derville,' a story of a French boarding-school.—Lee & Shepard will republish the 'Memoirs of Baron Stockmar.'—Macmillan & Co.'s for list February embraces 'The Cavalier and his Lady'—selections from the works of the first Duke and Duchess of Newcastle ('Golden Treasury Series'); 'The Depths of the Sea,' as explored by Drs. Carpenter, Gwyn Jeffreys, and Wyville Thompson, on the *Lightning* and *Porcupine*, in 1888-9; 'Caliban: The Missing Link,' by Daniel Wilson; 'The Mystery of Matter, and other Essays,' by Rev. J. A. Picton; 'Essays in Theoretical and Applied Political Economy,' by Prof. J. E. Cairnes; and 'Plays and Puritans, and other Essays,' by Rev. Charles Kingsley.

—We wish to call attention to the new French quarterly journal *Romania* published at Paris ('Recueil trimestriel consacré à l'étude des Langues et des Littératures Romanes, publié par Paul Meyer et Gaston Paris'), of which the first three numbers are before us. Their contents are both interesting and useful, and undoubtedly have been welcomed by the students of Romance languages. The principal object of the *Romania* is the publication of the inedited old French literature, as a basis for etymological, grammatical, and lexicographical researches; besides which it is devoted to studies on all Romance languages before the Renaissance and the Reformation. The Anglo-Norman language forms a part of its programme, which will help to awaken a wider interest. The opening article, "Romani, Romania, Lingua Romana, Romancium," by Gaston Paris, shows great scholarship and independent research, and contains a good deal which is at once valuable and novel, mainly in reference to the historical character of the Romance nations. There are some statements with which many readers will not agree; thus, he considers "l'esprit de race" not less dangerous than "le rationalisme pur," and then he says: "Le principe des nationalités fondées sur l'unité de race, trop facilement accepté même chez nous, n'a point eu jusqu'ici de fort heureuses conséquences. A ce principe, qui ne repose que sur une base physiologique, s'oppose heureusement celui qui fonde l'existence et l'indépendance des peuples sur l'histoire, la communauté des intérêts et la participation à une même culture. Il oppose le libre choix et l'adhésion qui provient de la reconnaissance des mêmes principes à la fatalité de la race; il est éminemment progressif et civilisateur, tandis que l'autre sera toujours par son essence conservateur et même exclusif."

—We have received from Messrs. L. W. Schmidt and F. W. Christern copies of the *Almanach de Gotha* for 1873. It contains a few more pages than the edition of last year, but, owing to the peace of Europe, it has had comparatively few changes to make, except in the diplomatic and official personnel, and in certain statistics which always require annual revision. In addition to the *Geographisches Jahrbuch*, which has of late years accompanied the *Almanach*, a special publication on the population of the globe has been found necessary, and was begun in September ('Die Bevölkerung der Erde'). The editors sharply rebuke two of their countrymen, Block and Dammer, for having borrowed too freely of their carefully prepared matter without acknowledgment. They also firmly defend themselves for continuing to place the cardinals under the head of the Holy See, in the 'Annuaire diplomatique,' instead of among sovereign princes in the first part of the 'Généalogie.' They have, they say, taken advice of competent authorities in civil and canon law, and remain of opinion that the cardinals must be regarded as the Pope's aids and the first dignitaries of the Church, but still at the same time as subjects of the states in which they reside. France resumes her place in the alphabetical arrangement of the 'Annuaire diplomatique.' The necrology contains only one prominent name—that of the late King of Sweden; Napoleon's death must be chronicled another year. Mr. Joseph Whitaker has sent us his *Almanack* for 1873, of which it may be said, as of its predecessors, that for English-speaking people it is as valuable in its way as that of Gotha. Great Britain and her possessions occupy, in the scheme of this almanac, five-sixths of the space, the rest being devoted to foreign countries. In the notice of the United States we remark on page 301 a few errors: *Canada*, N. J., for Camden; *Charleston*, as a suburb of Boston, for Charlestown—a mistake which, even if it were not clerical or typographical, would be far less gross than that of an English admiral, prominent in the Crimean War, who actually thought Charleston was situated on the Pacific Ocean; New Orleans, *Louis*, for Louisiana or La.; and 49,473 for 149,473 as the population of San Francisco.

—The *Atlantic Almanac* of Messrs. Osgood & Co. is only to a very limited extent serious and statistical. With a few pages of this kind, it mingles full-page illustrations, some of which have done duty in *Every Saturday*, and light reading in the shape of original and selected articles,

poetry, etc. The essay by Mr. Wilson Flagg, entitled "Picturesque Rambles," and that by Mr. Robert Morris Copeland on "Public Cemeteries," alone are worth (to use a common phrase) the price of the almanac. It is curious to observe how Mr. Flagg, who almost denies the landscape gardener any place in nature, and Mr. Copeland, whose business is landscape gardening, agree in denouncing the same sort of mistreatment of natural effects. The former tells of a certain "little pond bordered in its whole circumference by neatly-pecked curbstones, with a few formal clumps of shrubbery irregularly disposed outside of it"; while Mr. Copeland ridicules in his cemetery "the circular wash-basin confined by a stone wall, its shore paved with cobblestones set in geometric forms, and perhaps painted or whitewashed to give glaring contrasts of form and color, every wild plant gone, and every tree that has been retained robbed of its drapery, and clipped and pruned out of its typical form, to correspond with some idea of how a tree should look." Mr. Flagg has some very instructive remarks on the relations between certain kinds of trees and the houses of different periods in New England before which they are found planted; on the prevailing or once fashionable roadside trees; and on open-lot and pasture trees. We cannot say that we attach implicit credence to his theory that the oaks which have been preserved on cleared land "were planted by the Northmen from Greenland and Iceland, . . . whose ancestors were of the religion of the Druids," they cherishing the tree as still sacred, though previous to their emigration they had been converted to Christianity. Mr. Flagg, however, has no doubt of all this, or that "the colonists, not being reinforced by new arrivals of people, became absorbed into the native Indian population."

—Mr. Henry Blackburn's design for an annual exhibition of English and foreign water-color drawings and sketches, if carried out by the National Academy in the spirit in which it was originally proposed in England, should have a permanent influence on the American taste for water-colors, and encourage its practice as an art. Painting in water-colors is little understood in this country, and it is said by artists that it "does not pay." All this may be altered, and the taste for water-colors greatly increased, by the study of works by European artists, if only for a short season every year. The exhibition which is to be opened early in February next, will certainly be interesting; but it is experimental, and on its success will depend the establishment of future international exhibitions of art, both in oils and water-colors. But whatever the merits of this first collection, which has been got together in a very short space of time, it has none of the aspects of a commercial speculation, the artists who send their works being an independent body, some of whom will be willing to sell their works and some not. There will not, we are informed, be any auction or general sale of pictures, but the Council of the Academy, to whom they are consigned, will receive a list of those for sale, and either part with them at the artists' prices or return them to London at the close of the exhibition. As there will probably be a number of "sketches in black and white" from England and France, the American Society of Painters in Water-colors have just issued a notice that they will also "receive a limited number of drawings in black and white, on wood or paper," this year. In the present active state of illustrative art, this section of the exhibition, if well represented, as it certainly should be by American artists, will have an educational value worthy of all encouragement.

—"E. D. M.," referring to Gen. Garfield's recent letter in the *Nation* on the centre of gravity of our population since 1840, writes to the *Cincinnati Gazette* that in 1790, at the outset of the republic, the centre of gravity, as ascertained by Prof. Patterson, was in York County, Pa.:

"In the next eighty years—down to the census of 1870—it proceeded west (not exactly), but very near the 39th line of latitude. It passed a little south of the 39th degree, having begun something north of the 39th degree, and not having yet quite reached it. This variation is due to the space occupied by Lakes Erie and Michigan, which deflected to the south the advancing column of migration. The straight-line distance from the southeast corner of Pennsylvania (where it began) to Wilmington (Ohio), near which it now is, is very nearly 400 miles. The centre of the advancing column crossed the main ridge of the Alleghanies about 1833, a few miles south of where the old Pennsylvania road crossed Laurel Mountain, east of Uniontown. It crossed the Pan-Handle of Virginia in 1850, and reached the Scioto River in 1860. It is now crossing Ohio rapidly. Although the decennial average is but fifty miles, yet the great column of population is now moving west at the rate of eighty miles in each ten years. The centre will pass near Hamilton, O., and reach Brookville, Ind., about 1880."

—A correspondent has furnished us some calculations in regard to the cost of telegraphic messages in this country, made "on the supposition that the increased number of miles of wire," from 1867 to 1871, "represents no increase of business," "a supposition which," as he says, "he has no means of verifying." We may add that the supposition is incapable of verification. It has no foundation whatever. The new wire put up between 1867 and

1871 was erected in consequence of, and to provide for, the increasing volume of the telegraph business of the country. And experience shows that this growth is greatest between the large cities best supplied with telegraphic facilities. The further assumption that the increased mileage of wire was owing to the consolidation of private companies with each other is also untrue. During the period to which we refer, there were no consolidations of importance. Even if this had been the case, it would not justify the conclusions of our correspondent. It would be immaterial for our purposes whether between New York and Chicago, for example, the increase in business accompanied the union of competing lines or the erection of new wires. The question is, not where the messages came from, but what increase of expense did they involve.

—At Spandan, in Prussia, a shooting match lately took place between pupils of infantry and artillery schools, to determine the comparative efficiency of those two arms of the service. At the first trial each party was placed opposite targets representing its own arm, the infantry at a distance of from 900 to 1,200 yards, the artillery from 1,000 to 1,300 yards. Both practised together for the space of twenty minutes, at the end of which time the infantry had fired 20,000 shots and made about 200 hits; the artillery, using shrapnel-shells, 80 shots and about 1,200 hits. Targets were then exchanged, and firing for the same interval recommenced, with the result still decidedly in favor of the artillery. The numerical strength of the infantry of the Empire is about five times that of the artillery; but even so it would appear that its execution is considerably less effective than the latter's.

—The question whether Pope Adrian did or did not bestow Ireland on King Henry II. of England, which played so prominent a part in the controversy between Father Burke and Mr. Froude, is one on which the best Catholic historians by no means all take sides with the former. Cesare Cantù, in his classic 'Universal History,' admits the transfer. But there is stronger authority for it than Cantù's, and, if possible, one more unsuspected—Dr. Hergenröther, the ablest Catholic Church historian living, if we except perhaps Dollinger and consider him a Catholic. Dr. Hergenröther, who is the author of 'Anti-Janus,' and Professor of Canon Law and Church History in the University of Würzburg, has just published a work ('Katholische Kirche und Christlicher Staat in ihrer geschichtlichen Entwicklung und in Beziehung auf die Fragen der Gegenwart'), in which all the discussions are from the Catholic standpoint. Speaking of the case before us, he says: "Great weight has been attached to the fact that Pope Adrian IV. claimed Ireland and all islands converted to Christianity as the property of the Roman Church, and to the special fact that he made over Ireland to Henry II. in consideration of certain yearly tithes." He only adds that, in judging of this, "many things must be taken into consideration." Among those who have attached great weight to this transaction we find no less a man and no less good a Catholic than Bossuet. Hergenröther quotes from a letter of the Pope to King Henry II. to the effect that the latter had expressed a wish to him to extend the kingdom of Christ and the cause of morality, and had asked the Pope's advice as to how he should proceed to effect this. So low was the state of morals in Ireland, according to contemporary writers, that there was danger of the island's being depopulated by murder. All kinds of looseness prevailed, and even incest was not uncommon. Christianity had been abandoned in a great many parts of the island. Such a state of affairs demanded a remedy, and the remedy was to hand Ireland over to England, to be taken care of. Hergenröther quotes at length from contemporary documents, and from the letters of Adrian and his successor, in defence of these views. Indeed, like a good historian, he writes and does not make history, although he seems overanxious at times to defend the policy and even the political mistakes of the Popes. In addition to all this, our author shows that a council held in Dublin in 1176 acknowledged the sovereignty of England over the island, and that in 1213 Innocent III. warned the Irish to remain faithful to John of England, who had become his vassal.

THE STONE AGE OF GREAT BRITAIN.*

MR. EVANS has long been known as a most indefatigable worker in all that relates to the antiquities of Great Britain, and he has, in this work, given to the public the results of long and laborious examination of the specimens in his own and other large private and public collections of Europe. Being an ardent collector and a good artist, he furnishes not only accurate engravings of nearly five hundred different objects, but carefully prepared descriptions of those engraved, with many others of similar character found not only in Great Britain but in all parts of the world. So

* The Ancient Stone Implements, Weapons, and Ornaments of Great Britain. By John Evans, F.R.S., F.S.A., Honorary Secretary of the Geological and Numismatic Societies of London, etc., etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1872. 8vo, pp. 640. 476 woodcuts and one plate of 20 figures.

full, indeed, is this comparison of allied forms, and so erudite is the author, that the work, though limited by title to a treatise on the stone implements of Great Britain, is in reality a most complete encyclopædia of information on the subject embodied in the works of the earliest writers down to those contemporaneous with our distinguished author, and here made doubly valuable by the large number of reference notes. The work is thus a most reliable guide to the student of archaeology in this country, and one that must become the handbook of every worker in this field.

In a carefully prepared introductory chapter, Mr. Evans reviews the classifications that have been proposed for the different periods of prehistoric time during which man has existed, and, though adopting the terms of stone, bronze, and iron ages as the proper divisions of the period immediately preceding and running into the historic, now generally accepted under the term of Neolithic, he shows that such a classification must be taken with due consideration, and that, though the sequence from the stone age, through the bronze, to the iron age is unquestionably in the main correct, yet that sequence does not show itself as contemporaneous in all parts of Europe, and, consequently, we have not a perfect chronology when we adopt it as a whole, but only when we restrict it to any given district. This is perfectly well exhibited on our own continent even to-day, where we have, side by side, the stone age as existing in some tribes of Indians and the late iron age of civilization. Again, we find on this continent the remains of an early stone age, possibly before the neolithic period even, followed by a period corresponding to the bronze age of Europe (the *Mound-builders*, who were extensive workers in copper), which is again followed by a stone age (the prehistoric Indians), with no signs of a distinct bronze (copper) age, but jumping that age and running directly into the iron or early historic age, as exemplified by the Indians coming in contact with the first white explorers of the land. In this chapter Mr. Evans has fairly stated the case, and, with a full understanding of the subject, has divided his book into two great portions—the first embracing the whole of the neolithic period, consisting of the stone, bronze, and iron ages, and the second the palæolithic period, which he, for good reasons, divides into that of the river-drift and of the caves. That he has fully considered the contrasts exhibited in the execution of the implements of the different ages is evinced by the following summary quoted from page 49, chap. ii.:

"1. That in the Palæolithic, River-gravel, or Drift Period, implements were fashioned by chipping only, and not ground or polished. The material used in Europe was, moreover, as far as at present known, almost exclusively flint.

"2. That in the Reindeer or Cavern Period of Central France, though grinding was not practised, except for bone instruments, yet greater skill in flaking flint, and in working up flakes into serviceable tools, was exhibited. In some places, as at *Laugeriehaute*, surface-chipping is found on the flint arrow-heads. Cup-shaped recesses have been worked in other hard stones than flint, though no other stones have been used for cutting purposes.

"3. That in the Neolithic or Surface Stone Period of Western Europe other materials besides flint were largely used for the manufacture of hatchets; grinding at the edge and on the surface was generally practised; and the art of working flint by pressure from the edge was probably known. The stone axes, at least in Britain, were rarely perforated.

"4. That in the Bronze Period such stone implements, with the exception of mere flakes and scrapers, as remained in use, were, as a rule, highly finished, many of the axes being perforated and of graceful form, and some of the flint arrow-heads evincing the highest degree of manual skill."

In his second chapter Mr. Evans states the results of his enquiries and careful experiments as to the modes of working flint and the manufacture of various kinds of stone implements. That the *Esquimaux* should use a piece of deer's horn fixed to a handle as the most stubborn substance with which to work out their arrowheads of chert, after first roughly chipping them into shape with the stone hammer, will be a surprise to most readers of the book, as it is so generally believed that the whole process of making an arrowhead consisted in regulating a series of blows from a stone hammer; while, in fact, the head is finished by gently pressing off small fragments with the aid of the piece of deer's horn, thus securing the almost perfect symmetry and delicate finish which we so often admire in these implements.

With chapter iii. begins the description of the neolithic implements, each form of which is illustrated by the finest of woodcuts, with few exceptions of one-half the size of the originals, giving views of the face or broad surface, side, and section; a luxuriance in illustration which few American authors could afford to follow. Under the general term of "celts," four long chapters contain descriptions and figures of the various forms of cutting instruments comprised in a series starting with chipped flakes of the roughest and most simple make, and passing through the more perfect forms of chisels to the highly finished and polished hatchets and adzes. Many of these forms of cutting instruments were probably hand tools, but the discovery of several with bone sockets or with wooden handles is evidence that they were often mounted by their makers, in the ages long past, in a manner very similar to

that still employed among uncivilized races. The similarity in form of the celts figured by Mr. Evans to those found in other parts of the world shows that like ends are attained by like means, and that the human mind has for the same purposes worked and developed in every country in the same direction, up to a certain stage. The great antiquity of these stone celts is well shown by the very prevalent belief in their supernatural origin and the superstition with which, to this day, they are regarded in all countries, of which Mr. Evans recounts many curious instances. Among the absurd but once prevailing notions of their origin is quoted that of *Aldrovandus*, who describes these stones as formed by "an admixture of a certain exhalation of thunder and lightning with metallic matter, chiefly in dark clouds, which is coagulated by the circumfused moisture and conglutinated into a mass (like flour with water), and subsequently indurated by heat, like a brick."

Chapter vii. treats of implements of an allied nature to the celts, but which, under the name of "picks, hand-chisels, and gonges," Mr. Evans considers sufficiently characteristic to be removed from his group of celts; though in America we have so many more varieties of these forms of implements, and among them are such perfect combinations of the adze and the gouge, that it would here be impossible to draw the line between the two forms, the extremes of which are well defined. The prevailing view in regard to the gouge-shaped implements having been designed for the purpose of hollowing out the trunks of trees for use as canoes, is also that of Mr. Evans, who, from the fact that gouges are rare in Britain, while very abundant in Denmark and Sweden (and, we may add, in North America), infers that the ancient inhabitants of these countries were more of a canoe-making race than those of Great Britain. Archaeologists here, however, have generally considered fire to have been the principal agent in ancient canoe-making, and that, while these gouge-shaped stones may have been used to give the final scraping to the charred wood, yet probably they were more frequently used as skin-dressers, under which name they are generally classed, in common with the chipped instruments known as scrapers. This view is supported by the fact that the majority of the gouges were evidently hand instruments, and are generally made of too soft a stone for very effective work on hard wood.

We must pass over the next 260-odd pages devoted to the neolithic period, simply calling attention to the various forms of implements, utensils, and ornaments of which they treat. The finely finished stone axes with perforations for the handle, the hammers made in a similar manner, and those with a groove around them for the attachment of the handle, like the common form found in this country, the interesting series of implements classed under the head of scrapers used for dressing the skins of animals and similar purposes, the splendid series of arrowheads and javelin points, the flint knives and saws, stone-drills, whetstones, mortars and pestles, cups of rude stone, amber and gold, amulets and ornaments, etc., etc., are all most beautifully figured. The dryness of the technical description is charmingly relieved by general remarks on their modes of use and the conditions under which they have been found, and by instructive comparisons with those of other regions. We cannot close our imperfect review of the neolithic period without allusion to the very important discovery of the nodule of iron pyrites and a round-ended flake of flint found in a barrow in Yorkshire. Mr. Evans has concluded from a careful study of these specimens, together with other evidence, that the iron pyrites must have been used in connection with the flint for the purpose of producing fire, and that we have, in these simple and natural means, at least one of the early modes of producing fire explained.

We now pass to the second division of the book, the Palæolithic period. Here the author, who is of the committee appointed by the British Association for the Advancement of Science to explore the famous Kent Cavern, has with the greatest care brought together the results which have been attained, and which prove the existence of man at a time when the cave lion, the hyena, the cave bear, grizzly bear, mammoth, woolly rhinoceros, the urus, the bison, the Irish elk, reindeer, and other animals now wholly unknown in Great Britain, and many of them extinct species, were the common animals of the region.

"What," asks Mr. Evans (p. 451), "do the presence and condition of these instruments denote?"

"The flint flakes occur in great numbers, and have mostly been used; the blocks from which they were struck are present; there are traces of fire on some of the bones; there are hammerstones, whetstones, weapons of the chase, and the needle of the housewife: all prove that during the accumulation of the cave-earth the cavern was, at all events from time to time, the habitation of man."

Again (p. 476), he says, in his concluding remarks on the cave period:

"Were no other evidence forthcoming, the results of an examination of these British caves would justify us in concluding that in this country man

coexisted with a number of the larger mammals now for the most part absolutely extinct, while others have long since disappeared from this portion of the globe. The association, under slightly differing circumstances, and in several distinct cases, of objects of human industry with the remains of this distinct fauna, in which so many of the animals characteristic of the existing fauna are 'conspicuous by their absence,' in undisturbed beds, and for the most part beneath a thick coating of stalagmite, leads of necessity to this conclusion. This becomes, if possible, more secure when the results of the exploration of other caves on the continent of Western Europe are taken into account. How long a period may have intervened between the extinction or migration of these animals and the present time is, of course, another question; but such changes in the animal world as had already taken place at least three thousand years ago, do not appear to occur either suddenly or even with great rapidity; and, leaving the stalagmite out of consideration, we have already seen that in some instances the physical configuration of the country in the immediate neighborhood of the caves seems to have been greatly changed since the period of their infilling."

The next 145 pages of the volume treat in a thorough manner of the implements of the river-drift period. As our author says, he proposes, "first, to give a slight sketch of the origin and nature of the discoveries which have been made in this particular field of archaeology; then to furnish some details concerning the localities where implements have been found, and the nature of the containing beds; next, to offer a few remarks on the character and possible uses of the various forms of implements; and, finally, to consider the evidence of their antiquity"; and most admirably has this been done. Mr. Evans shows, in this part of his book, how carefully he has pursued the geological side of the subject, giving a most instructive résumé of the whole subject of the formation of the river-gravel beds. Though the high antiquity of man on the continent of Europe may be considered settled, from his having been found to be contemporaneous with a number of large animals, such as the fossil elephant and fossil rhinoceros, long since extinct, to fix the time in years with any degree of precision is impossible, and our author makes use of the following equation to represent it:

"The antiquity, then, that must be assigned to the implements in the highest beds of river-drift may be represented (1) by the period requisite for the excavation of the valleys to their present depth; plus (2) the period necessary for the dying out and immigration of a large part of the quaternary or post-glacial fauna and the coming in of the prehistoric; plus (3) the polished stone period; plus (4) the bronze, iron, and historic period, which three latter in this country occupy a space of probably not less than three thousand years."

On this head the following is Mr. Evans's impressive summary:

"On the whole, it would seem that for the present, at least, we must judge of the antiquity of these deposits rather from the general effect produced upon our minds by the vastness of the changes which have taken place, both in the external configuration of the country and its extent seaward, since the time of their formation, than by any actual admeasurement of years or of centuries. To realize the full meaning of these changes almost transcends the powers of the imagination. Who, for instance, standing on the edge of the lofty cliff at Bournemouth, and gazing over the wide expanse of waters between the present shore and a line connecting the Needles on the one hand and the Ballard Down Foreland on the other, can fully comprehend how immensely remote was the epoch when what is now that vast bay was high and dry land, and a long range of chalk downs, 600 feet above the sea, bounded the horizon on the south? And yet this must have been the sight that met the eyes of those primeval men who frequented the banks of that ancient river, which buried their handiworks in gravels that now cap the cliffs, and of the course of which so strange but indubitable a memorial subsists in what has now become the Solent Sea.

"Or, again, taking our stand on the high terraces at Ealing, or Acton, or Highbury, and looking over the broad valley four miles in width, with the river flowing through it at a depth of about 100 feet below its former bed, in which, beneath our feet, are relics of human art deposited at the same time as the gravels; which of us can picture to himself the lapse of time represented by the excavation of a valley on such a scale, by a river greater, perhaps, in volume than the Thames, but still draining only the same tract of country?

"But when we remember that the traditions of the mighty and historic city now extending across the valley do not carry us back even to the close of that period of many centuries when a bronze-using people occupied this island; when we bear in mind that beyond that period lies another of probably far longer duration, when our barbaric predecessors sometimes polished their stone implements, but were still unacquainted with the use of metallic tools; when to the historic, bronze, and neolithic ages we mentally add that long series of years which must have been required for the old fauna, with the mammoth and rhinoceros, and other, to us, strange and unaccustomed forms, to be supplanted by a group of animals more closely resembling those of the present day; and when, remembering all this, we realize the fact that all these vast periods of years have intervened since the completion of the excavation of the valley and the close of the Palæolithic period, the mind is almost lost in amazement at the vista of antiquity displayed.

"So fully must this be felt, that it is impossible not to sympathize with those who, from sheer inability to carry their vision so far back into the dim past, and from unconsciousness of the cogency of other and distinct evidence as to the remoteness of the origin of the human race, are unwilling to believe in so vast an antiquity for man as must of necessity be conceded by

those who, however feebly they may make their thoughts known to others, have fully and fairly weighed the facts which modern discoveries have unfolded before their eyes."

RECENT NOVELS.*

ON the whole, we think that the novel reader should certainly rejoice at the appearance of translations of works of fiction which were written in foreign tongues, so long as the choice of books is discreetly made, and the rewriting them in English (for translation almost amounts to that) is done by competent persons. There is, of course, a large class who are for ever reading French novels, although, perhaps, with an eye to their newness rather than to their merits, while there are almost as many who vary the somewhat monotonous reading of German tragedies by taking up the almost equally monotonous German novels. But besides the difficulty of determining the moral worth of an unread novel, most of those written in French will be found rather hard reading by those who are not very familiar with the language, and while this is true of most, it will be found especially true of those which are written by Victor Cherbuliez. Of his merits as a writer mention has already been made in these pages, and it is of the novel, 'Joseph Noirel's Revenge,' which is the last he has written that we have to speak to-day. Before discussing the quality of the novel, there is something to be said about the merits of the translation, which bears too great marks of having been hastily done. At the best, reading a translation is like looking at a picture through tinted glass, but when the glass has flaws in it that might have been avoided by very slight attention, the reader is naturally impatient. One is resigned beforehand to the loss of the peculiar elegance of the French, and of the grace and facility with which Cherbuliez uses it; let one think how Thackeray, for example, would read in the French translation; but of the faults that need not have occurred we will mention a few. Had Cherbuliez written the novel in English, we should hardly have found "I guess I was," which is to be seen on page 50, nor, page 107, "If anybody should ever murder me, I think it would be splendid to have Royer blow up his billiard table"—perhaps, however, we should be grateful that "elegant" was not used. "Struggled some," page 63; "considerable of a fall," page 95; "I'm not through yet," page 48; and, most remarkable of all, "bottoms of my feet," page 199, are instances of gross carelessness, though on almost every page we miss anything like the smoothness of the original. As to the title, 'Joseph Noirel's Revenge,' in the French it is 'La Revanche de Joseph Noirel,' and to translate *revanche* by *revenge* is a bit of inaccuracy; the word means rather "turn" or "innings," although neither of these words lends itself to a smooth-sounding title. It should be mentioned, however, that those who take up this novel will not be tempted to seek refreshment for themselves on their way through it by parsing ungrammatical sentences. As a clever novel, as one that fixes and holds the reader's attention, it is certainly deserving of very great praise. It is, in a way, a model sensational story. Cherbuliez is always clever—clever, with great wit, a charming style, and a happy invention, and the reader is carried on to the end of his novels, puzzled about the issue of the story and fascinated by the author's wonderful dexterity. Poems in prose they are not; they are too much the best work of cleverness to be that; but Cherbuliez is by no means unmindful of the charm which ingenuity alone can never produce, and in every one of his books there are passages which imply something more than mechanical facility.

'Joseph Noirel's Revenge' tells us the story of a young girl, Marguerite, a charming person, the daughter of a rich Genevan *bourgeois*, with whom a handsome count, not middle-aged but no longer a youth, falls in love, and whom, to the delight of her ambitious parents, he marries. Joseph Noirel is a young workman employed by her father, who has held a vaguely defined position in regard to the family, he being half workman and half friend. Growing up in this intimacy with the family, he falls in love with Marguerite, while the obscurity of his origin and his own inferior social position prevent him from presuming to mention his love. Around the count's

* 'Joseph Noirel's Revenge. By Victor Cherbuliez. Translated from the French by Wm. F. West, A.M.' New York: Holt & Williams. 1872.

'Off the Skelligs. By Jean Ingelow.' Boston: Roberts Bros. 1872.

'The Harveys. By Henry Kingslev.' Berlin: A. Asher & Co. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1872.

'The Ordeal of Wives. By Mrs. Edwards.' New York: Sheldon & Co. 1872.

'The Doctor's Dilemma. By Herbert Stretton.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1872.

'Liza. By I. S. Turgenev. Translated by W. R. S. Ralston.' New York: Holt & Williams. 1872.

'Drei Novellen von Iwan Turgénjew. Deutsch von W. A. Polownoff.' Wien, Pest, Leipzig: A. Hartleben's Verlag. 1872.

'Bessie. By Julia Kavanagh.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1872.

'Hills of the Shatemuc. By the Author of 'The Wide, Wide World.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1872.

'Kaloolah: Adventures of Jonathan Romer of Nantucket. By W. S. Mayo, M.D.' New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons. 1872.

'Premium: Paid to Experience. By Edward Garrett, author of 'Occupations of a Retired Life,' etc. New York: Dodd & Mead. 1872.

life there is a great mystery which his wife, not from curiosity, idle or busy, but from a wish to sympathize with him, tries to discover. But let no reader imagine for a moment that we are going to take the words out of Mr. Cherbuliez's mouth, and tell any more his carefully concocted story. Those who have read it do not need to have it repeated, and those who have not would not thank us. The curious reader cannot do better than take up the novel and solve the mystery for himself. We are sure that he will be interested, and that he will find it difficult to lay the book down before finishing it. Whether on his cooler second thought he will be so well pleased with the novel is another question; he will not deny its interest, but there will be left a feeling of sympathy for the people who are tormented in the story for his idle entertainment. But, on the other hand, its objectivity of treatment, its avoidance of the temptation to linger over morbid self-analysis and obscene psychological difficulties, save the book from being a dangerous one. It is nothing new to find in French novels a discussion of the state of mind of a man who is in love with another man's wife, but in few of the stories do we find such innocence as is here portrayed in Marguerite's character. If it were otherwise, the book should be tabooed; but as it is, one must be very prone to evil to be hurt by it. To some people, even 'Blue Beard,' which this novel resembles, must be an objectionable story.

A novel of as firmly settled moral tone as the Constitution of the United States is Miss Ingelow's 'Off the Skelligs.' In regard to literary merits, however, the palm must be given to the book we have just been discussing. Miss Ingelow puts the story into the mouth of a young girl, the heroine of placid love-affairs, which are much less interesting reading than the more exciting yacht voyages which she takes with her eccentric uncle and a brother, whose relation to the story is about that of a fifth wheel to a coach. She flirts with a young man named Valentine, who is a conceited rattle of a half-grown youth, while grimly flitting about in the background is the earnest man whom she marries after a series of misunderstandings. In construction, the novel is lame to a great degree. The story unwinds itself with depressing slowness; the love-making, even to those who do not care for elopements and feverish transports, seems as passionless as tea-parties. There is a fearful dullness throughout the whole book. Many pages are given up to records of the talks of the different characters, which are, for the most part, dreary enough to make one wish to turn Trappist.

Before laying aside the rod, we should like to mention Mr. Henry Kingsley's novel, 'The Harveys,' as a book to be shunned. The author outdoes all his previous failures in the way of jauntiness and ease of manner. A book that has so little that is good it is hard to criticise justly without seeming to be unwarrantably abusive, but in the way of affectation it would be hard to find anything that exceeds Mr. Henry Kingsley's later novels. This one is poorer than even 'Old Margaret,' of which mention was made a few months ago.

Those who remember Mrs. Edwards's very readable novels, 'Susan Fielding' and 'Ought we to Visit Her?' and are induced to buy 'The Ordeal for Wives' under the impression that it is, as it is advertised to be, a new novel of hers, should understand that it is not a new novel, but an old one, which is offered them. How fair it is to an author, who has no means of setting herself right, to take one of her earlier and less successful novels, which she would probably be glad to let remain in obscurity, and to put it before the public as a recent work, every one can judge for himself. This novel is far inferior to Mrs. Edwards's later stories, and bears much stronger resemblance to the sensational novels of Mrs. Rhoda Broughton than to any better models. But there is besides much of the humor, of the keen observation that make the later writings of our author so very readable. The sentimental reader will find no lack of that important quality, but it is only too evidently the work of an immature hand.

'The Doctor's Dilemma' is the title of a new novel by Miss Hesba Stretton. The question which disturbed the doctor was whether or not he should poison one of his patients. The temptation was strong; the sick man was a low-lived character who made himself very odious to the doctor, and, furthermore, he was the husband of a charming young woman with whom the doctor was in love; so that the patient's chance seemed to be a bad one, especially since he could have been put out of the way, not by having poison mixed with his pills, but by the doctor's abstaining from putting him under a new treatment, which is always successful in novels. Virtue wins the day, but still the patient is not immortal; in due time, illnesses, for which no cure has been discovered, seize him, and he dies, leaving his wife and the doctor to marry with clean consciences. The story needs no praise nor blame; it is simply one of a thousand which kill the idle hour, though sometimes by a lingering death.

Of a very different kind is Turgeneff's 'Liza,' which is the last of Messrs. Holt & Williams's admirably chosen 'Leisure Hour Series.' A French

translation, with the title 'Une Nichee de Gentilshommes,' has been before the public for about ten years, but this English version has been made, and with much more literalness. It can be recommended without reserve to those who are anxious to read a novel that differs as much from the ordinary kind—for example, from 'The Doctor's Dilemma'—as Keats's 'Ode to a Nightingale' differs from a chapter of ornithology. Of those which have already appeared, 'Fathers and Sons,' in spite of its very great interest, contained so much that needed for its entire comprehension a tolerable knowledge of Russian life and recent history, many of the problems it introduced were so different from anything familiar to the experience of most novel-readers in this country, that the impression it made could never be so complete as that which the original must have made upon those for whom it was properly written. In 'Smoke,' too, much of the long-drawn-out conversation in which Turgeneff, with a sort of Dickens-like exaggeration, ridicules the foibles of his fellow-countrymen, has wearied many readers to whom the state of society that it caricatured was something unknown; and then, notwithstanding all that women-writers have done in the way of accustoming the public to high-seasoned food, there was something distasteful in the subject to many who did not stop to see how it was treated, as well as to many others who did. To 'Liza,' however, these objections do not apply; it is simply a beautiful story, in which no one need fear to find a dull or offensive page. The heroine, whose name in the English translation, with the author's permission, gives the title to the story, is a young girl of a serious, religious nature. If Turgeneff knows how to describe perplexing, fascinating, evil-minded women like Irene in 'Smoke,' he understands just as well how to draw pure and lovely women like Marie in 'The Correspondence,' or Helen in 'On the Eve,' or the heroine of this novel. He represents her receiving the attentions of a young man, Panshine, who is an intelligent, cold-blooded, self-esteeming man whose only real ambition is political success, but who is in love with Liza. Soon there appears Fedor Lavretsky, a married man, who is separated from his wife on account of her infidelity. She was a frivolous, heartless woman whom he had married when an inexperienced youth, and who afterwards went entirely to the bad. Just as he becomes interested in Liza, he receives the news of his wife's death, he declares his love to her, she confesses her own, after a moment of happiness their dream of greater bliss is broken by the return of the wife, the report of her death having been false. Liza goes to a convent, he to his own work. Although we crowd the story into these few lines, there is vastly more in it than so brief an analysis shows. Nothing could be more delicately told than Liza's readiness, in the first place, to marry Panshine, simply because she is in a certain way pleased by his various accomplishments, and by so doing she could gratify her mother; then, when Lavretsky's influence teaches her how much more serious is that passion of which she had previously been ignorant; and, finally, when marriage with him is impossible, the dignity with which she resigns herself to her sad fate, the loftiness of mind with which she treats Lavretsky, whose whole action is controlled by her, is all set before us, or rather we see it all going on, as only clear eyes see the tragedies of life, and as only poets narrate them. A story of this sort should be read more than once before its full charm can be felt, there is so much untold, so much suggested, that its interest is never exhausted. There is, for instance, the story of Lemm, the old music-teacher, with his impossible love, which he knows to be impossible, and his futile, ardent longing for musical success, making a touching episode which only seems the more impressive the more it is thought over. Then, with regard to the whole novel, in spite of its sadness, there is no impotent outburst against the sternness of fate, any more than there is a dexterous riddance of all difficulties through some unexpected back-door; the people have their troubles, they suffer, they bow to their fate, and time brings what consolation it can.

A German translation of three shorter tales of Turgeneff's has just appeared. They are 'The King Lear of the Steppe,' which was recently published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*; 'Der Fatalist'; and 'Der Oberst,' which many will remember as 'Le Brigadier' in the 'Nouvelles Moscovites.' This last is an exceedingly interesting story—one of the best that the author has written. The 'Lear of the Steppe' is, to our thinking at least, one of much less interest. 'Der Fatalist,' which is the only one that will be absolutely new to most of our readers, is the story, told by an old officer of a friend of his youth some forty years ago, of a man who, feeling his insignificance in the world, and yielding to the intellectual fashion of that day in Russia, and mistaking some ordinary occurrences, which are afterwards satisfactorily explained, for supernatural tokens, takes his own life. It is a study of a morbid, half-mad character, like many of this writer's shorter tales, and so the sketch, in spite of the skill with which the grimness of the events is told, is far from being one of general interest. Still, no admirer of Turgeneff will be satisfied until he has read it. In comparison with this and with the

'Lear of the Steppe,' we praise the more warmly 'Der Oberst,' in either the German or French translation.

For those who wish a swift transition to the monotony of everyday life, there is Miss Kavanagh's 'Bessie,' by the side of which any dull routine would be interesting and almost poetical. Miss Kavanagh has told us so many readable, if over-sentimental, tales, that one sees with regret her endeavor, in this novel, to represent greater complications than intricate flirtations can bring about. It is a story with a mysterious close, but when this is found out, it seems but a ridiculous mouse which has caused all the trouble. Still, the story reeks with love-making of different kinds, though all the people, in spite of their resemblance to Greek gods who bite their nether lips, and of the way the young women flirt desperately without seeming to be aware of it, are vague and misty creations.

Quite as remarkable as would be the appearance of a stage-coach to take travellers from this city to Boston, or a fine sailing packet to ply between here and Albany, is the reappearance of 'The Hills of the Shatemuc,' which we thought had as irretrievably disappeared from human knowledge as the Mountains of the Moon have from the map of Africa. But the book appears again, with its long talks between the man who will take no more pie and the woman who tempts him to overeat himself, or whatever the rustic imitations of a plot may be, as if novels were rare in the market. One cannot help wondering who they are who read these novels nowadays.

Twenty years ago and more, 'Kaloolah' was the delight of many young readers, and puzzled some of the older ones to decide whether it was in greater part fact or fiction. Dr. Mayo says in his preface that it would, if his notes upon the story had been printed in connection with it, have incurred the danger of being "taken by the public as mere authority on certain questions in geography, ethnography, natural history, and mechanics." A second reading of 'Kaloolah,' after the interval referred to, does not, we find, renew the pleasure of our youth, nor raise a doubt that we have been guilty of novel-reading, nor add greatly to our previous stock of knowledge about ethnography or mechanics. In a word, the story is violently improbable, and quite unworthy of resurrection at this late day.

Mr. Garrett tells us in his prologue that "life is like a roll of costly material passing swiftly through our hands, and we must embroider our pattern on it as it goes," and his book is written throughout in the serious Anglo-Saxon spirit which Mr. Taine assures us forms, rather than our creed, the basis of Englishmen's best doings in the world. 'Wheat and Tares,' 'The Crackling of Thorns,' 'A Well without Water,' 'A Sin of Omission,' 'An Israelite Indeed,' are some of the titles of chapters in which the author describes certain experiences of his life, reflecting that "if you buy a bit of wisdom at any price, it is a good bargain." He tells stories of his early companions, of their struggles in business and disappointments in love. He interests us "in a problem that vexed me sadly for many, many years"—the mystery of the "Providence that rules the world," as exemplified in its dealings with Messrs. Knight, Archer, and Henry Cromer, "the second son of the chief corn and grain merchant of Middleboro, Shropshire." He criticises his own early experiences under the derogatory title of the 'Wisdom of Fools.' Each chapter is a story, and we gather from the book a quite vivid impression of certain phases of life among the middle classes of English Dissenters, especially of lives of which privation, and suffering, and religious principle are the leading features. In the last chapter, he severely describes "one of those light natures with whom feeling follows the semblance," who "said what ought to be said and meant it afterwards." Mr. Garrett maintains throughout the story such a uniform superiority to his gay young friend, and lectures him so solemnly when he comes to grief, as he deserves, that we find our sympathies forcibly transferred to the wrong side—an accident which will hardly overtake the solid British Dissenter, who, after all, will be, we presume, the person mainly edified by these narratives.

The City of God and the Church-makers. An Examination into Structural Christianity, and Criticism of Christian Scribes and Doctors of the Law. By R. Abbey. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1872.)—Mr. Abbey's theological method is above all things simple, but that its simplicity is identical with that which is said to be an essential element of greatness may safely be doubted. His conception of an exhaustive treatment of the rather large question which he proposed to himself to discuss is like this: he has discovered in the course of a long life and a good deal of not overdiscriminating theological study, that the "Church of God" is seriously hampered, not to say on the very verge of being crushed out of existence, by twenty-four fundamental errors. These he states as briefly as possible, and among them are such as these: That Jesus Christ instituted a new church; that the law was abrogated by the Gospel; that the Jews offered true sacrifices; that the Jews crucified Jesus Christ; that the Jews were lineally descended from

Abraham; that Jesus Christ "established new sacraments," etc. To these twenty-four errors, Mr. Abbey very peremptorily opposes twenty-four contradictory truths, which he does not propose to argue at all, because he thinks them self-evident, and that immediately on their assertion they will "probably be held incontrovertible." His next step is to summon into court "two hundred authors" in order to prove that the erroneous notions in question are, preposterous as it seems, actually believed and taught by Christian writers. Thus, the "Rev. E. P. Murphy, D.D., of Kentucky," is openly convicted of having taught in that department of "the church" that "two methods of salvation have at different times been proposed to mankind"; and having shown up the unfortunate Murphy, who doubtless never considered himself as an entirely authoritative teacher, Mr. Abbey goes on to say, with a fine irony, that this sort of thing "passes in Christian lands and among Bible readers for theology." Dr. Stuart, of Andover, fares no better, and his remark, that our Lord "proposed to teach a new religion," is met by Mr. Abbey with the retort: "The only new religion known in those days, that I know of, was the new faith set up by the rejecting Jews, in opposition to the Saviour." Even "Milligan, Carrol & Co., of Cincinnati," who published at some time or other an apparently anonymous "philosophical treatise" in which it was taught that Christianity was introduced into the world by Jesus Christ, do not escape the searching eye of Mr. Abbey, which sees all that is insignificant, and apparently sees nothing else. He arraigns "a tract published in 1860 by the Rev. Messrs. Boyce and Quintard—now Bishop Quintard"; "An American Sunday-school Book"; Hannah More; "The Methodist Catechism," and other weighty authorities, and from each of them he quotes a line or two in support of one or other of the "twenty-four errors," and then proceeds to demolish them by opposing a line or two of his own, equally weighty, equally convincing, in the way of flat denial or contemptuous comment. It is astounding, he thinks, that "the Church" has borne up so long under such misrepresentations of its true character, and he is happy in the thought that he has lived long enough to clear away so much encumbering rubbish. His notion of a general clearance is suggestive of an idea broached by a student in one of our colleges on the subject of making decently habitable one of his two rooms. The true theory of housekeeping, he submitted, was always to have two rooms, "one of them to throw the rubbish in." We shall not say on which side of the house, the new or old, a convert to Mr. Abbey's views would find the most litter; but we advise all readers who have a great deal more time than they know what to do with, and all who having more time than they know what to do with are entirely indifferent whether they spend it profitably or with complete unprofitableness, and all who being in this above-mentioned condition are careless whether or not the unprofitable employment amuses them, or on the other hand makes them low-spirited and dismally dull, to hasten and purchase "The City of God," and give it a careful perusal.

Major Jones's Courtship: Detailed, with other scenes, incidents, and adventures, in a series of letters by himself. Revised and enlarged. To which are added, Thirteen humorous sketches. With illustrations by Cary. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1872. 12mo.)—Twenty-eight years ago Mr. W. T. Thompson wrote the history of the courtship of Major Jones, "to give variety and local interest to the columns of a Georgia country newspaper," by portraying "Southern rustic life and character, with no more of exaggeration than was necessary to give distinctiveness to the picture." The author's very modest preface informs us that in the present edition "puerilities have been eliminated, needed amplifications have been supplied, and many verbal and orthographic changes, not inconsistent with the general character of the thing, have been made."

Major Joseph Jones was a Georgia "cracker" who lived about the year 1842, in Pineville, Georgia, was a major of militia, fond of the manly arts of coon-hunting, candy-pulling, and courting, in the habit of saying "sense" for *since*, "monstrous" for *very* or *extremely*, "yeath" for *earth*, "pore" for *poor*, and in many other ways exhibiting the peculiarities of the Georgia "mean white"—as in his contempt for "niggers," his love of country, and pride in the good old State of Georgia. For this at least we take Mr. Thompson's word, for, according to our own experience, Major Jones, though having many other dialectic peculiarities of the "cracker" tribe in Georgia, is morally above the level which we should have drawn as typical. There is a trifle too much romance, perhaps, about his relations with Miss Mary Stallins for cracker life, and indeed it may be doubted after all whether Mr. Thompson, when he uses the term "rustic life," is not more correct than when he selects the other epithet. Major Jones is certainly ignorant and vulgar, but he has not the degradation of the true mean white. We speak with hesitation on the subject, for apparently Mr. Thompson knows the field thoroughly; and the field has doubtless

changed a good deal since the picture of it was drawn; but is there not a good deal of the small Georgia farmer of the upper counties in Major Jones's character, and would the refined Miss Stallins have married a real mean white? Besides this, is there not a good deal too much of Mr. Thompson himself in this Major?

The book gives, as we believe, a very fair picture of the condition of society in the Southern interior among the poorer classes, at the period when railroads were a new thing; when service in the militia was still regarded as a matter of pride; when the memories of the Revolution and the men who took part in it had not wholly faded away; when abolitionists were regarded in the South much as the early Christians, in the second or third centuries, were by the contented worshippers of Jupiter; when the "North" was an unknown country, reputed to contain many wealthy but also dishonest and cowardly people. It was a society which read, wrote, and spelt with great difficulty, but was very contented with its own ignorance, and indeed not sufficiently familiar with other forms of society to know how ignorant it was. The description of the life led by Major Jones and his friends can hardly be called interesting reading; but it has some value, or will one of these days, as the records of extinct life always have, particularly when they are left behind by those who cannot be suspected of unfairness. The "thirteen humorous sketches" are very much like "Major Jones's Courtship"; they consist of such stories as in all frontier and half-civilized countries are told to amuse the audience which gathers round the fire after the day's drudgery or idleness is over; which is very willing to be amused, and not critical as to the means. The humor is of that broad kind which finds more delight in practical jokes, the accidents occasioned by drunkenness, "scares" in church-yards, and repartees of the *tu quoque* kind, than in the appreciation of those very remote resemblances and recondite analogies of which the best authorities assure us true wit, or true humor, we forget which it is, consists. We must not forget to add that the main story will enjoy a sort of immortality, as one of the sources of Mr. John Russell Bartlett's "Dictionary of Americanisms."

Latin School Series. Selections from Classic Authors, Phædrus, Justin, Nepos. With notes and a vocabulary, by Francis Gardner, Head

Master; A. M. Gay and A. H. Buck, Masters, in the Boston Latin School. (Boston: Lee & Shepard, Publishers. 1873. 12mo, pp. 281.)—It is a good sign for the interests of classical learning that even the Boston Latin School has yielded to the demand for a more generous method, and has undertaken to substitute the study of the ancient writers themselves for some part of that exclusive grammatical dish which used to characterize it. This volume of the 'Latin School Series' proposes as a definite aim to enable the pupil "to read a Latin author with a facility which the methods hitherto pursued of studying the language have rendered impossible"—of providing "such selections as shall contribute to the most rapid and pleasant advancement of the pupil." It is very hard to make such selections in Latin—much harder than in Greek, to find passages which shall be at once easy, interesting, and in a good style; and it illustrates the difficulty that not one of these three authors can be pronounced unequivocally classical, nor, for the matter of that, either easy or really interesting. Yet these passages will perhaps do as well as any that could be found, and at all events will afford a variety from the everlasting repetition of the same books of Cæsar, and same orations of Cicero, which is one of the greatest disadvantages of our classical courses. The notes are prepared with care and accuracy, and show at every step the hand of an experienced teacher. The vocabulary is equally good; clear, compact, and giving just such information as the boy needs. The etymology is particularly good.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Roe (Rev. E. P.), Barriers Burned Away.....	(Dodd & Mead)
Rowlands (C.), Henry M. Stanley: The Story of his Life.....	(J. C. Hotten)
Schulte (Prof. J. F. von), Ueber Kirchenstrafen, swd.....	(L. W. Schmidt)
Snider (D. J.), Clarence; a Drama, swd.....	(E. F. Hobart & Co.)
Snow (Mrs. S. P.) and Floy (H.), Christmas Stories about Santa Claus.....	(Nelson & Phillips)
Stieler (A.), Hand-Atlas, Part X., swd.....	(L. W. Schmidt) \$0 50
Still (W.), The Underground Railroad, new ed.....	(Porter & Coates)
Stricker (Dr. W.), Der Blitz und seine Wirkungen, swd.....	(L. W. Schmidt)
Stuart (Rev. J. P.), The New Doctrine of Prayer, swd.....	(Robert Clarke & Co.) 1 15
Talk and Travel.....	(D. Ogilvy)
Tarcock (Rev. O. W.), English Grammar and Reading Book.....	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 50
Underwood (F. H.), Handbook of English Literature, American Authors.....	(Lee & Shepard)

WE WILL SEND THE WEEK

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

January 13, 1873.

THE money market is slowly returning to a more satisfactory condition, although, by holding off from accepting the legal rate, lenders have been able to obtain small commissions (compared with those of last week), varying from 1-64 to 1-16 in addition to 7 per cent. per annum. As a rule, borrowers have had no difficulty in supplying their wants at 1-64 to 1-32 and interest, and, on some days, at 7 per cent. gold per annum. By the 20th of the present month a steady 7 per cent. market may be reasonably expected. The last of the "relief money," amounting to \$1,345,846, was called for by the Treasury from the national banks on January 4. The total amount deposited in the banks in October was \$6,023,387, which, together with the proceeds of the weekly gold sales, amounting to \$11,242,486, making a total of \$17,265,873, has been withdrawn by the Treasury from the banks of this city since Nov. 1. The amount paid out by the Treasury in the same time for 5-20's purchased was \$5,529,212, making a net loss to the banks of \$11,736,611.

In commercial paper, business has been more active, and, in view of the near approach of easy money, there has been a greater disposition to buy, and the tendency of the market is towards lower rates. The paper of some of the large railroad corporations has lately been in the market, and has found ready sale, among which we may mention that of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad Company and the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. 9 to 12 per cent. is the range of rates for good names.

The Governor, in his recent message to the Legislature, has taken strong ground in favor of the repeal of the usury law, and bills have been introduced for its abolition. We hope to see the matter pressed to a favorable result, and New York placed in as advanced a state of civilization, in this respect, as some of her sister States.

The bank statement for the week ending January 11 is favorable. The gain in reserve is in specie only, and is due to the disbursements of January interest on the public debt. The receipts of currency from the country so far have been in national bank notes, which are not available to the banks, and go to swell their liabilities in the shape of deposits. The banks now hold \$4,690,025 in excess of the 25 per cent. reserve required. The excess for the week ending January 4 was \$2,788,025, and the banks have consequently gained \$1,902,000 in their net reserve, as shown by the following statement of averages, compared to that of the previous week ending Jan. 4:

	Jan. 4.	Jan. 11.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$777,720,900	\$775,552,800	Dec. \$2,168,100
Specie.....	19,478,100	22,539,100	Inc. 3,061,000
Circulation.....	27,613,800	27,461,600	Dec. 152,200
Deposits.....	203,808,100	207,441,500	Inc. 3,633,400
Legal tenders.....	41,165,400	40,876,700	Dec. 288,700

The following analysis of the above statement shows the relation of the total liabilities and the total reserve:

	Jan. 4.	Jan. 11.	Differences.
Specie.....	\$19,478,100	\$22,539,100	Inc. \$3,061,000
Legal tenders.....	41,165,400	40,876,700	Dec. 288,700
Total reserve.....	\$60,643,500	\$63,415,800	Inc. \$2,772,300
Circulation.....	\$27,613,800	\$27,461,600	Dec. 152,200
Deposits.....	203,808,100	207,441,500	Inc. 3,633,400
Total liabilities.....	\$291,411,900	\$294,903,100	Inc. \$3,481,200
25 per cent. reserve.....	57,853,475	58,725,775	Inc. 872,300
Excess over legal reserve.....	2,788,025	4,690,025	Inc. 1,902,000

Advices from London have been favorable. The Bank of England, on Thursday, reduced its rate of discount from 5 to 4½ per cent., while outside of the Bank the rate for money is 3½ per cent.

If we except two or three of the leading speculative stocks, the week at the Stock Exchange has been dull, and free from any interesting features. Pacific Mail has made a further decline, and sold on Thursday at 70. The speculation in the stock of the Western Union Telegraph Company carried the price up to 84 on Saturday, from 78½, the price at the commencement of the week. The revelations in the Crédit Mobilier investigation frightened the holders of the stock of the Union Pacific Railroad Company, and their efforts to sell have caused a decline in the price from 39¼, the quotation on Monday, to 35½ on Friday, from which point only a slight reaction has taken place, the stock closing on Saturday at 36¼.

The leading feature of the week has been New York Central and Hudson, which advanced to 104 on Friday. A great many reports and rumors have been afloat regarding the earnings of the road and the large future dividends to be paid. One report places the gross earnings for the year 1872 as high as \$30,000,000, and for the month of December \$2,700,000. As Commodore Vanderbilt never publishes the earnings of his roads until it suits his convenience, there is no way of ascertaining the truth of the matter. There has been some uncertainty whether the money to be provided for increasing the capacity of the road, by laying two new tracks, would be raised by a division of new stock among the stockholders at a low price, or by the issue of bonds, which the directors recently authorized, amounting to

\$40,000,000. At a special meeting, held on Saturday, at the Commodore's office, the directors altered the form of the mortgage, and provided that one-fourth of the amount shall be in sterling bonds, £2,000,000, bearing 6 per cent. interest; the remainder, \$30,000,000, to be currency bonds, bearing 7 per cent. interest. Whether the whole, or any part of them, will be issued remains to be seen; but the action of the directors at the special meeting rather discourages the recent expectation of the stockholders that, in making the proposed improvements, they would share in any division of new stock.

The general market has been heavy, with a falling off in prices. The stock of the Michigan Central Railroad Company has declined to 104—a decline of about 7 per cent. for the week, and has been caused by the disappointment of the stockholders in having to accept 4 per cent. stock in lieu of the usual 5 per cent. cash dividend, which set some of them to selling out. The following statement, taken from the *Daily Bulletin* of January 10, shows the number of shares of the leading stocks sold at the Stock Exchange during the year 1872, with the par amount of capital stock of each issue:

	First 6 months. Shares sold.	Second 6 months. Shares sold.	Year. Shares sold.	Capital stock.
N. Y. Cen. and H. R.....	1,620,600	1,366,400	2,987,000	\$89,428,330
Erie, com.....	3,487,700	2,968,000	6,455,700	78,000,000
Lake S. and Mich. S.....	2,084,500	2,041,300	4,125,800	49,000,000
C. and Pitts.....	93,400	6,000	99,400	11,250,854
O. and Miss., com.....	3,177,700	1,438,000	4,615,700	19,935,847
C. and N. West., com.....	3,246,100	2,339,000	5,585,100	15,033,480
pref.....	105,100	81,000	186,100	21,289,563
Chicago, Rock Is., etc.....	1,191,700	1,048,700	2,240,400	19,000,000
Pitts., Fort W., etc.....	5,800	4,300	10,100	21,114,285
Mil. and St. P., com.....	304,000	200,600	504,600	1,398,500
pref.....	156,100	43,300	199,400	10,825,719
Tol. and Wab., com.....	197,300	418,200	615,500	15,000,000
Han. and St. Jo., com.....	205,200	69,400	274,600	9,167,700
pref.....	20,800	24,400	45,200	5,087,224
Harlem, com.....	110,300	42,300	152,600	7,500,000
Del., Lac. and West.....	128,400	107,000	235,400	18,858,850
New Jersey.....	27,200	20,710	47,900	7,295,200
Pacific Mail.....	4,363,200	6,608,800	10,972,000	30,000,000
West. Union Tel.....	2,515,900	3,387,900	5,903,800	29,000,000
Quicksilver, com.....	208,300	66,700	275,000	5,700,000
Union Pacific.....	3,397,700	1,691,300	5,089,000	36,745,000
Adams Express.....	17,000	18,400	35,400	10,000,000
A. and Mer. U. Ex.....	96,400	16,400	112,800	18,000,000
United States Express.....	109,300	34,100	143,400	6,000,000
Wells, F. & Co. Express.....	17,400	9,000	26,400	5,000,000
Col., Ch. and Ind. C.....	1,665,200	1,087,700	2,752,900	13,000,000
Bost., Hart. and Erie.....	1,002,500	267,600	1,270,100	24,188,960

Total amount of stock, par value.....\$378,871,512

The amount of 5-20's offered to the Treasury on Wednesday amounted to only \$71,500, at prices ranging from 111 74 to 112 50. The amount purchased was \$21,100, at 111 74. The demand from investors and shippers has developed a great scarcity of bonds, and a consequent advance in prices of all the different issues has taken place, amounting to from 1 to 1½ per cent. on the more recent issues of the 5-20's and on the 6 per cents. due in 1881. The foreign bankers report their inability to fill their orders, owing to the scarcity of bonds in this market. Three years ago there would have been less difficulty in purchasing \$1,000,000 Government bonds in the open market than is now experienced in purchasing \$100,000. The ready market which Government securities always have causes them to be a favorite investment with savings-banks and other moneyed corporations which are liable, through losses, to be suddenly called upon for large sums. The amounts held by such institutions, together with the bonds deposited in Washington by the national banks as security for their circulating notes, and the very large amounts owned abroad, leave but a small supply floating in this market, which is being gradually absorbed by the Treasury in its weekly bond purchases.

The transactions in State bonds have been light, the largest dealings having been in Missouri sixes, which, on account of their comparatively low price, 92¾, have held out better inducements to investors than any other State bonds upon which interest is regularly paid. A committee of the Virginia State Senate is to confer with the representatives of the bondholders on Feb. 3 next, and try to arrange some terms of settlement for the payment of the interest due Jan. 1, which payment was suspended by law.

A well-distributed business has been done in railroad bonds, those of the Union Pacific Railroad, as well as the stock, having been unfavorably affected by the developments of the Crédit Mobilier investigation, especially the Income bonds, which declined from 83¾, the opening price of the week, to 75½ on Saturday. The first mortgage bonds and the Land Grants also fell off, but the decline in these was not so marked as in the Income bonds. A good deal of speculation has been going on in the first mortgage bonds of the Boston, Hartford, and Erie Railroad Company, but the price of last week has not been maintained, the closing sales of this week being 43¾.

In consequence of gold shipments during the week, the general feeling in the gold market was one of strength. The export of specie for the past week was \$2,695,233. The total shipments since January 1, 1873, have been \$3,527,153, against \$572,827 shipped during the same time in 1872, \$977,997 in 1871, and \$716,593 in 1870.

